

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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LANDMARKS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

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World History: the Problem of Content

Geoffrey Bruun

I WANT to assure you first of all how earnestly Professor Goldwin Smith¹ and I appreciate the privilege of sharing in your program this morning. We undertook this assignment in midsummer when we were both feeling heady with holiday wine. But we come before you today completely sobered by our temerity. I speak for both of us when I ask for your indulgence, and I ask it on three counts. (1) We must cope with a subject that is vast, nebulous, and controversial. (2) We must face experts who know more about teaching history in secondary schools than we shall ever learn. (3) We enter this arena untoughened by administrative responsibility. We are soft-shelled products of the seminar and the lecture-room, of that gentle, impractical world of academic irresponsibility, where, as Carl Becker liked to say, professors are provided with an audience so that they may endeavor to clarify their ideas by oral discourse.

THE ideas we are seeking to clarify this morning concern the appropriate contents for a world history course. Perhaps it would be more definitive to say a world history text, for if we phrase our thoughts in terms of a prospective text they will have a tighter frame, and problems of space and emphasis may be exemplified more explicitly. Our discussion will sometimes range, I fear, at a stratospheric level, so we have thought it well to prepare a navigation schedule. I command our plane on the outward trip. Like every conventional history course it starts off heavily loaded, but this will not deter me from taking on

additional cargo at every stop. My colleague will fly the overloaded plane back and will decide en route what items of cargo it is best to drop in order to lighten the ship. The cargo list, when the flight is completed, will correspond to a prospective table of contents for a text on world history, amended according to our dual estimates.

Professor Smith and I have agreed in advance on certain definitions and premises. I want to state these at the outset because they provide the frame of our thinking. We have assumed that a teachable text for a course in world history must be limited to 1,000 pages at most and to less than 500,000 words. Thus compressed into one volume world history obviously cannot mean "a history of the world." It cannot project all centuries and all civilizations on the same scale. What is included and what is emphasized must be selected with a definite purpose in mind. In the following discussion we shall use the term "world history" to mean a one-volume text for secondary school students, so organized that it will clarify the historical periods, developments, and events which it is most relevant and useful for young Americans to understand today.

PRINCIPLES OF SELECTION

HERE we approach the heart of the problem. Which historical periods and developments are most useful and relevant for the future citizens of this republic to study? We venture to offer two principles of selection. The recent centuries are more important than the more remote, and the text we have in mind will be planned with cumulative chronological emphasis. To speak more explicitly, we think events before 1500 A.D. might fill one-third or less of the text; events from 1500 to 1850, one-third; and the events of the last hundred years, one-third. Our final premise is: at every stage the ideas, institutions, precedents selected for emphasis should be the roots from which contemporary world socie-

The author, visiting professor of history at Cornell University (1951), read this paper at the thirty-first annual meeting of The National Council in Detroit. Professor Bruun has contributed generously to professional publications, and is the author of *A Survey of European Civilization* (Part II), *Europe and the French Imperium*, *Clemenceau*, *The World in the Twentieth Century*, and other works.

¹ Goldwin Smith's paper will appear in the February issue of SOCIAL EDUCATION.

ties have derived their form, their character, and their vitality.

To restate our position in a sentence, we believe in "the immediate usefulness of history." This is, of course a *cliche*. In the last half-century no theme has been more insistently honored by the presidents of the American Historical Association in their annual addresses than "the immediate usefulness of history."² Unhappily this unanimity of aim disintegrates in practice. There is ambiguity in the seminar, there is vacillation in the classroom. Too few historians are clearly aware of their own motivations. Some are antiquarians who investigate the past for its own sake: at their best they are akin to the students of pure science, at their worst they are escapists. Some are ancillary historians whose interest in the past is centered on one or two themes, the evolution of democratic government, perhaps, or slavery in the Roman Empire. Some are pragmatic historians with a broad perspective who ransack the past for clues to the problems of the present. The strict pragmatic historian demands of every period, every passage, every page in a history text, "What is the relevance of this information for Americans today?" He does more. He asks of every page, "What information is *not* here that would be more relevant and useful for Americans today?"

I suppose everyone in this room has asked himself such questions many times. We are all pragmatic historians in some degree and we all believe in the immediate usefulness of history. When we adopt a new text on world history our primary concern is: will this text provide a useful historical foundation for the edifice of knowledge the student must raise upon it? As a check, a verification, we may ask ourselves: how satisfactory would such a text have been for me in my middle teens? Would it have served as a suitable base for the body of knowledge I have made my own? If we can answer yes, honestly and with good reason, we are probably steering as truly as we can, according to our lights. But we may be guilty of serious errors in this fourth dimension.

THE roots of our miscalculation are too deep for our untangling. They run back two thousand years and more to the high intellectual tradition of the ancient world, to the invention of printing, to the bibliolatriy of the humanists.

² Herman Ausubel, *Historians and their Craft*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1950. p. 17.

For the last five hundred years the intellectual life of Europe has been dominated by the tyranny of a graphocracy. All of us here today, in our schooling and in our thought, are products of a typographical culture; we have printers ink in our veins; and our concepts of a liberal education are a heritage from the humanists. Is this a fault and a limitation? I submit that, for the teacher who hopes to make history useful and relevant to the youth of America today, it is.

Am I too apprehensive about the historian's bookish limitations? Let me cite some examples of the bias that distresses me. If we could canvass the leading thinkers of the Western world today, asking them to name those fields in which our civilization has attained preeminence, I venture the guess that they might place mathematics first among our sciences and music first among our arts. Both these disciplines have contributed something cardinal and distinctive to the fabric of our culture. It would be logical to expect that history teachers, explaining the genesis and evolution of the contemporary mind, would deem modern music and mathematics worthy of special attention as perhaps the most original creations of Western Man.

Yet how seldom this is done. In most of the general history texts with which I am familiar music is the least adequately treated of all the major arts. The history student of today is reminded that Sophocles and Racine were dramatists, he learns their dates and something about the audiences for which they wrote, and the information will enrich his understanding of their dramas—if he ever reads them. Yet I will wager that at this moment there are a hundred people listening to the music of Brahms or Beethoven for one who is reading a tragedy of Sophocles or Racine. For which experience should we prepare the student, the recurrent or the uncommon?

The average historian is dedicated to printed books. He has been trained so religiously to regard the library as the Cave of Oracles that he is reluctant to believe the Muse of History will reveal herself to worshippers in any other shrine. There is a fanciful story—I forget where I read it—but I think no historian can hear it without a rueful smile. This story records that a young archaeologist, digging in the ruins of Sorrento, unearthed the original score of the song the Sirens sang to Ulysses. A hundred reporters were waiting at the dock when he returned to America. "Yes," he assured them, "my discovery is authentic. I have brought back the Song of the Sirens and it is so entrancing that I cannot bear

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to tear myself away from it." "Do tell us," a reporter begged, "what instrument do you play it on?" The student of history was surprised. "I play it on my typewriter, of course," he answered. "What other instrument could I play it on?"

Books remain our richest and readiest sources for an understanding of the life of literate men in the past. We must not blame the historian if he leans upon them heavily. But we *can* blame him if he leans upon them unequally and brings us an unbalanced report. As a further test of his objectivity let us take the treatment of mathematics in the average history text.

MATHEMATICS may well claim to be the most original creation of the human spirit not only in the field of science but in any field whatever.³ The scientific wonders of our age were spelled out in mathematical formulas before they became transforming facts. It would be difficult to over-emphasize the effect of mathematical science in shaping those instruments of power and precision that distinguish our civilization most decisively from any other civilization that mankind has known. Yet how many general history texts can you cite that discuss the development of mathematics with the attention reserved for the revival of Latin literature in the Renaissance or the poetry of the Romantic Revolt?

Such discrimination is dangerous. The historian can no longer afford to treat mathematics as the Cinderella in our house of culture, not now that she is married to Science, the fairy prince. There are too many members of our society, charming people many of them, who admit gaily that they cannot balance their check stubs against a bank statement and require help to add a bridge score. Of course the historian is not to blame because we have so many mathematical illiterates in our midst. It is not his fault if we think it a higher proof of culture to quote Dante in the original than to place a decimal point correctly. But in a society governed by statistics, it might be better if our history texts paid more honor where honor is due, and mentioned Laplace or Lobachevski with the same respect accorded to Petrarch or Milton. The mathematician is the Merlin of this modern age; the apparitions invoked by his genius are all about us; our skies are darkened with his runic spells. Yet if all other sources perished, what testimony to his

genius would be preserved in our general history texts? Histories of science aside, I can think of only one recent tribute to the mathematicians that raises them to the elevation they merit. On the famous list of one hundred great books compiled at St. John's College, the mathematicians outnumber the poets almost two to one, and the works on science bulk larger than all the works cited from imaginative literature.

It is encouraging that more discussion of natural science has appeared of late in the newer history texts. In the last twenty, and especially in the last ten years, whole chapters have been incorporated describing the major scientific discoveries and inventions since the sixteenth century. I believe it would be well if such treatments were expanded even more, but most of them, I think, should be expanded in a new direction. At present they are too largely concerned with theoretical and experimental science; they tend to ignore technology. It is true that scientific ideas, as *ideas*, set off an intellectual revolution in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. But it was not until scientific knowledge materialized in the form of machines that we had the technological revolution of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

IT IS this technological revolution above all else that has dug a gulf between our age and all preceding eras, that has given us mass production, mass transportation, powered implements in home and farm and factory, the marvels of instantaneous communication. It is this technological revolution that has made modern man a stranger to himself. It is this technological revolution that has created a schism in the modern psyche and set Man the Thinker and Man the Maker at odds.

We are all distressed by this schism. We are all appalled by the threats that war, totalitarianism, and social regimentation raise against the free way of life, against the dignity of the individual man as a sovereign personality, as an end in himself. I know that many profound and earnest thinkers believe that the best way our schools can meet these threats is to reaffirm the humanist tradition, reaffirm it more boldly and more insistently. We are men divided; there is a cleavage in our intellectual heritage; and if we would see life steadily and see it whole we must bridge that rift. But I cannot agree that the road to reunion lies in loading our curriculum with more courses in the humanities, in loading our history texts with a heavier humanist interpretation. I would

³ Preserved Smith. *A History of Modern Culture*. New York: Harper Brothers, 1930. Volume I, p. 89.

not have it thought that I speak in disparagement of the classics. There was a time when our heritage from the Greek and Latin literatures formed the essential body of an education, when Erasmus could say "Within these two literatures are contained all the knowledge that we recognize as of vital importance to mankind." For Western Man that time has passed. The historian who would interpret World History for moderns knows that our civilization rests on twin foundations, on the humanities and the sciences. If he would link the two he must present them as coequal. If he would build a bridge between them he must build it from both sides.

TRUER PERSPECTIVE

PUTTING first things first, the writer of a world history text might well decide that his most constant thought should be: how can I best achieve a balanced picture, how can I yoke the twin traditions, humanistic and scientific, that divide our culture? One answer might be: by recognizing science and technology as the most dynamic forces in the contemporary world and by explaining more adequately from what roots in the past they took their rise. Five years ago, at the Bicentennial Conferences at Princeton University, leaders from the academic world discussed the prospects of "The Humanistic Tradition in the Century Ahead." I think you will agree that some of their remarks might almost have been coined for our symposium this morning. Discussing the place of "Science in the humanist tradition" they saw reason to hope that "... humanism and science may draw closer together provided the humanist replaces disdain with sympathy, and escapes from his introspection into deep contemplation of the marvels majestic or minute which are the scientist's daily study." They pointed out that "Science and the humanities have become separate only within the last 200 years." And they expressed the conviction that "This divorce between science and the humanities can be best overcome by cultivating the history of science."⁴

HOW shall the historian, whose preconceptions are already set, how shall the history teacher whose duties leave little amplitude for additional study, cultivate the history of science? The problems of reorientation involved here

reach far beyond the scope of this present paper. Yet it is clear that any historian or teacher eager to invade the domain of science will find no lack of guides. Anyone who takes time to enjoy *The Scientific Monthly*, for example, will be gratified to discover how frequently the scientist and the historian can join hands, and how rewarding their cooperation may become when both are inspired by a broad vision and a zeal for understanding.

For the teachers and the textbook writers, who think it advantageous to incorporate more scientific lore into the world history course, there is no simple formula for success. The best procedures I can suggest in the few minutes that remain will strike you, I fear, as patchwork repairs, as piecemeal expedients. I offer them as examples of what I believe would be moves in the right direction; but I know that teaching, like politics, is the art of the possible; I know that we must hasten slowly.

A few minutes ago I ventured the opinion that technological advances and their impact on society deserved more emphasis in world history texts. One period where progress in technology receives scant attention from the historian is the medieval era. Because European literature suffered an eclipse in the Dark Ages the historians who judge an age by its writings have left us with the impression that tools and handicrafts deteriorated to an equal extent in medieval times. The Gothic cathedrals, which refute any such facile generalization, are often described in such exclusively aesthetic terms many students carry away the conviction that this superb architecture, this "frozen music," was created by rude and unskilled men who builded better than they knew by virtue of their religious ecstasy. It would be a helpful corrective to point out that in the thousand years between the fourth and the fourteenth centuries Western Man made as much progress in the improvement of his tools and mechanical techniques as in the thousand years preceding. The Western Europeans of the Middle Ages were as mechanically-minded, their advances in technology as important, as those of the Greeks and Romans. There is more historical continuity in the progress of European technology in the last three thousand years than in art, literature, philosophy or scholarship. Why has this vital connecting strand been so little stressed?

A second area in which I think the historian might reach out a hand towards the scientist, or at least towards the statistician, is in the use of demographic data. I realize that no dependable

⁴ *The Humanistic Tradition in the Century Ahead. Princeton University Bicentennial Conferences. Series I, Conference 6. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University; 1946. p. 22.*

census records became available until the end of the eighteenth century, if then. But studies in the density and variation of European and world population patterns in the earlier centuries have multiplied considerably of late, supplemented by researches in sociology, anthropology, the history of medicine and disease, of diet, food supplies, and agricultural methods since prehistoric times. More frequent and more intelligent estimates on the sizes of cities and armies, on the density and distribution of population in provinces and empires ancient and modern, are becoming available every year. Such estimates, when they can be inserted, would not distend a world history text unduly.

A THIRD topic that might be developed more emphatically is the progress of communication and transportation through the ages. The subject links up readily with advances in technology, with road-making, shipbuilding, cartography, navigation. It should be based upon a more adequate discussion of physical geography, upon the part that oceans, rivers, mountains, plains, deserts and forests have played in shaping the history of the human race in historic times.

I MIGHT multiply such examples if time permitted; I have been aware at every pause how much I have left unsaid. But to make too many points is to numb the mind to all of them. Even now, I fear that many of you must wonder what first things I have meant to put first. You may well feel that I have imitated the impetuous character in one of Stephen Leacock's tales, who flung himself from the room, flung himself from the house, flung himself upon a horse, and rode off rapidly in all directions.

Yet I did have—at least I meant to have—a central argument to lay before you for consideration this morning. I feel that the textbook writers and the history teachers still rely too heavily upon literary works for their themes, their materials, their point of view. The subjects I have nominated for more adequate treatment—music, mathematics, science and technology (especially technology), population patterns and movements, transportation, communication, physical geography—all these I emphasize as cor-

rectives for the over-intellectual, over-literary world history texts in current use.

In 1873 Benjamin Disraeli declared^{*} that within his own lifetime the revolutions wrought by science had done more to remold the world than any political causes, and that they had changed the prospects of mankind more than all the conquests, all the codes, and all the legislators that ever lived. This penetrating judgment of eighty years ago was too little heeded by the historians of Disraeli's day. It seems to me that most historians still give it too little heed today when the evidence for it has become so much more impressive. History textbooks written for students living in an age of science should give full emphasis to the origin and development of science. This is the major point I have tried to make.

We live today in an age historically isolated, an orphan age. Never before, so far as we know, has mankind abandoned the ancient highway so abruptly to plunge with such dizzy acceleration down an unknown road. The historian cannot reweld the chain of time by half-links, cannot reconcile us to ourselves by showing half our image in the mirror of the past.

We who face the problems of a mechanized economy, a mechanized life, are strangers and afraid, not in a world we never made but in a world we *did* make. The historian must help us to understand better how we came to make it. He must emphasize all the hints and prefigurements of this machine civilization that may be discerned in the past if he wants us to believe that the effects we see around us had an efficient cause. It is not enough for him to tell us how we derived the Hellenic and Christian elements in our culture. He must explain how science stole upon the stage and took command. Only when the historian makes more clear to us how the world of the twentieth century was transposed into its present form will he restore our shaken faith in the laws of historical continuity. Only when he explains us to ourselves more convincingly, in terms of our whole inheritance, will he assuage the fear we feel at our desolate and incommunicable singularity.

^{*} *The Popular Science Monthly*, 4: 640 (April 1873).

Social Education in Secondary Schools

R. W. Cordier

RECENTLY I noted this interesting ideal emblazoned upon a banner in the social science office of Columbia University and ascribed to Henry Johnson, recognized dean of social studies teachers and instruction:

The enduring things in the long story of human development, told without provincial prejudice, embracing all peoples and all lands, leading to but not led by the fleeting present, a world history, one and essentially the same for all of the schools of the world, and studied by all the children of the world.

If I were to paraphrase this statement for the purpose of stating the ideal that governed our study of social education in the secondary schools of Pennsylvania it would run something like this:

The enduring values of American democracy as a form of government and as a way of life, through which all the children in our schools may develop those interests and talents that will make them self-sufficient and happy individuals, and through which they may develop those understandings, attitudes, and skills which will make them useful and competent citizens in the home, school, community, and nation.

DEMOCRACY AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

SINCE social education is concerned primarily with learning in the area of social and human relationships, our study was cast within the framework of our democratic faith. It is to the principles of this faith that we are dedicated as a nation. Yet some people have believed that these principles apply chiefly to the organization and processes of government. Many have given little more than lip service to these democratic principles which have helped to make our nation prosperous and strong.

Dr. Cordier is a professor of government and history at State Teachers College in Indiana, Pennsylvania. "This article," he wrote in a letter accompanying the manuscript, "is, in part, a description of the proposed course of secondary social studies for the schools of Pennsylvania." He modestly failed to add that he chaired the Production Committee responsible for getting out the report itself, a 364-page book with the title, *Course of Study in the Social Studies for Secondary Schools* (Harrisburg, Pa.: Department of Public Instruction, 1951).

Today we are in a time of decision. Democracy as a form of government and as a way of life is being challenged by forces from without as well as from within. It will no longer do merely to assert our faith in democracy. We must activate that faith in every category of living. This resolve was given expression in Act 551 of the Pennsylvania General Assembly, in the preparation of our bulletin *Educating For Citizenship*, and by similar actions all over the nation in the field of citizenship education. Throughout our own study stress is placed upon those procedures whereby pupils will not only learn about our democratic faith but developed skill in the practice of democratic relationships in the classroom, home, and community.

THE SCOPE OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

IT IS asserted that social education should be *life centered, community related, and world oriented*. Secondary school youth are not yet adults. They are only on the way to becoming adults. Hence social learning in the schools should bear directly upon and be related to the interests and problems that concern them now if it is to be relevant and meaningful to them. On the other hand it must not be tied to their immediate interests and concerns to such an extent that it becomes superficial and transitory. Growth and development in social and civic competence will be attained by provoking new curiosities, by opening up new interest facets, and by creating situations that call for practice in a variety of social skills.

It is hoped that social studies teachers will make greater use of the resources of the local community in shaping the program of social education in the schools. The community is near at hand. It presents a cross-section of the world at large and contains most of the elements essential to effective social learning. It provides the basis for the observation and study of human relationships and social processes as well as the opportunity for social practice and participation. It is a laboratory in which the pupils have their being and in which they meet real life situations. Participation in the work and the life of the community provides the most direct route to effective social learning and civic competence.

The local community is, in a sense, the focal point from which social education can view a larger perspective. We have long referred to the larger metropolitan community, to our state as a community, and to our nation as a community of states and regions. Now our daily existence is affected by events that occur in the remotest parts of our world. The hazards as well as the promises of this atomic age require the development of a more inclusive community of interest and social participation. Lester Pearson of Canada recently referred to the Atlantic community as being comprised of those peoples who by reason of their common heritage and mutual interests are able to work together naturally. He declared that the development of such a common heritage and mutuality of interests on the part of all peoples and nations is essential to eventual world peace and security. This is a concern of all people, particularly of youth who have their lives largely before them. It is for this reason that the program of social education throughout the secondary school should be world oriented as well as life centered and community related.

THE TONE OF EFFECTIVE SOCIAL LEARNING

THE French are probably the most literate people of the world in the areas of government and public affairs. Since the time of the Franco-Prussian War French schools put forth a deliberate and systematic effort to promote intelligent citizenship. It was done chiefly through the direct teaching of history, government, and citizenship. Yet on several historic occasions the patriotic devotion of the French people was found wanting.

We ourselves have long debated the question as to whether an informed person makes the best citizen. There are reasons to believe that while knowledge is essential to social competence and good citizenship individuals must also develop skill in the practice of such competence and behavior. This can come only through action, through the application of one's knowledge in concrete behavior situations. Knowledge and action are complementary aspects of effective learning. Knowledge gives direction to action and action gives meaning to knowledge. It is upon this thesis that the Citizenship Education Project as well as the Pennsylvania program of social education is based.

On the other hand, the mere marriage of knowledge and activity learning is not likely to result in a joyful honeymoon for our pupils. Learning may remain a dreary experience unless

the choice of knowledge and learning experiences is such as will meet the real needs of our pupils, challenge their abilities, arouse their curiosity, give expression and meaning to their interests, provoke their imagination, and open up inviting vistas for them to explore. Interest, zest, and enthusiasm for learning are things that must be created through careful teacher-pupil planning. They give tone to learning and determine, in a large measure, the effectiveness, the retention, and the usefulness of what is learned. Thus useful *knowledge*, plus appropriate *activities*, plus a certain desired *enthusiasm* form a second trilogy essential to effective social learning.

THE APPROACHES TO SOCIAL LEARNING

GOOD teaching and effective learning generally result from deliberate planning and the utilization of varied and appropriate procedures and devices. It is recommended that the teacher prepare resource units around the major problems and aspects of her grade and subject area. Some such units are available in the form of the Problem of American Life Series published by the National Council for the Social Studies and from other sources. None are so applicable, however, as those that are prepared by the teacher herself. Such units provide a reservoir of ideas, pertinent topics and problems, useful devices, and materials to be used in the classroom.

The teaching or experience unit, on the other hand, is intended to challenge and guide the pupils through a particular learning experience. It is intended for classroom use and should center around a particular problem or topic of significance to the pupils. It should be planned and initiated by the teacher and the pupils jointly. Study, discussion, and other learning activities constitute its development. It should culminate in the application of learnings gained, in self-evaluation, and in a sense of achievement.

It has been said that there is no one and only method or device. Rather it is contended that a variety of procedures should be employed to serve the various needs of the pupils.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDY IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER three, which comprises the main body of our report, describes the proposed course of study by grade levels. The grade by grade treatment is intended to facilitate administrative adaptations and to suggest desired sequences in the program of social learning. The divisions under which each grade program is treated include: the title or theme of the course;

scope of the course; anticipated outcomes in terms of desired behaviors; outline of the course; suggested learning activities; instructional materials and resources; and sample units from the field. The sample units are intended to indicate the nature of some of the work that is being done in our schools.

The proposal for the *seventh grade* rests upon the assumption that the secondary program in social education should begin where the elementary program terminates. Our recently published elementary program, Bulletin 233B, recommends, in the area of social living, the development of an understanding and appreciation of an unfolding and inclusive world of peoples, nations, and geographic areas, together with those skills which make for personality growth and social competence. From a study of his home and community in the primary grades the child is carried through a study of his state in the fourth grade, the settlement and growth of our America in the fifth grade, and the Americas in the sixth grade.

The completion of this cycle of learning and the pupil's picture of the larger world in which he lives suggests the study of the modern peoples of Europe, Asia, and Africa in the seventh grade. The emphasis is shifted from the traditional old world background to the modern peoples of Europe; how they learned to live together in communities and states; how they learned to govern themselves; how they improved their ways of living and making a living; and how they unrolled the map of the modern world, to bring into the focus of our living, the peoples of Asia and Africa as well as the Americas, thus pointing up the concept of the emergence of one world.

United States history is recommended for the *eighth grade* with the major emphasis to be placed upon the formative middle period of our history, upon the rise of our democratic government and ways of living, and upon the economic and industrial growth of our nation. This will provide a fresh emphasis and interpretation of our nation's story in contrast to that experienced at the fifth grade level; and effective framework for democratic learnings, and the historical setting and basis of the budding vocational interests of the pupils.

At the *ninth grade* level it is recommended that the present program of separate semester courses in Pennsylvania history and civics or government be replaced by a full year course on Pennsylvania in the form of a series of unit studies stressing: the geographical setting; three

units on the history of Pennsylvania and the role it has played in the life of our nation; community living in Pennsylvania—why we live in communities, the kinds of communities in which we live, and how we can improve community living; how we Pennsylvanians make a living through agriculture, mining, industry, and the service occupations and professions; how we govern ourselves at local, state, and national levels.

Our world heritage is the theme of the *tenth grade program*. It is concerned with the struggles of peoples to gain control over the forces of nature, the development of a productive economy, the lifting of their living standards, and the development of ideas, social controls, and institutions in the realms of family living, religion, culture, and government. Emphasis is placed upon the common elements in a world of cultural and political diversities.

The theme for *grade eleven* is democratic and industrial America in a world setting. Interpretations to be stressed in this third approach to the story of our nation are: the development of democracy not only as a form of government but as a political philosophy and a system of values; growth of an American culture and civilization; the changing composition and character of the American people; science, technology, and industrialization; and the growing influence and responsibility of our nation in world affairs.

A study of the major problems of American democracy is recommended for the *twelfth grade*. Can democracy meet the challenge of dictatorship? How does propaganda influence public opinion? Why is education important in a democracy? How can we have more stable families? How can nations live peaceably? are problems that are recommended. Others are suggested.

THE two last chapters deal with evaluation and instructional material. Evaluation is concerned with the growth of the whole individual in terms of behavior changes—how he thinks, feels, and acts—as he progresses through his educational experience and as he matures. The measurement of this growth on the part of the pupil is a concern of both the teacher and the pupil. Various instruments of measurement and evaluation are recommended and described in this study. The list of instructional material and resources include the sources of supplementary readings, pamphlet materials, audio-visual aids, community and current events materials, as well as professional references for the teacher.

Edward Bellamy, *Looking Backward* 2000-1887

Robert E. Riegel

EDWARD BELLAMY may well have written the most significant book ever to come from the pen of an American.¹ In a day when laissez-faire and free competition were the current ideals, when the Muckrakers and the Theodore Roosevelt type of Progressives were still in the future, when socialism was a minor phenomenon and communism non-existent, and when even the control of railroad rates was radical doctrine, Bellamy looked forward to the day when an all-powerful government would seek to remedy all the manifold ills of human society. His doctrines were both a harbinger of things to come and a potent force in bringing the desired goals nearer.

THE FORMATIVE YEARS

EDWARD BELLAMY'S life was a long struggle to attain integrity of personality and philosophic perfection. Born in Chicopee Falls, Massachusetts, in 1850, he was more deeply stirred emotionally than the average boy in his adolescent effort to develop the sort of individuality that would indicate adult independence from his family. Not that his family was undesirable in any usual sense. His father was a Baptist minister of probity, his mother was a sternly and conventionally pious woman, and the family life was harmonious. But Edward felt with extraordinary force the necessity of personal independence in thought and actions. The first indications of this revolt were too much liquor and too fast

driving, which certainly departed widely from his mother's ideals as to the proper actions of her four sons on their way to become pure and upright young men.

Bellamy's revolt against matriarchal ideas carried over into his social thinking. He opposed the current worship of wealth, and maintained that the proper personal incentives should be social service and prestige; personally he valued money but little, and lived quite simply, regardless of his income. He opposed current religious practices, and resigned his church membership; here the revolt was against religious formalism and the division into sects rather than against religion as such. He opposed the worship of fame, and avoided such functions as ceremonial dinners, receptions, and teas. He reacted strongly against the tyranny of sex, holding that "love is a chain." Although he wanted a wife, a home, and children, he disliked the loss of personality and independence coming through passionate emotional attachment. The result was that he did not marry until he was thirty-two, and then picked his foster sister, age twenty-one, whom he liked but did not love.

Conditioned by his revolt against current ideals, Bellamy spent many years in experimenting with various occupations to try to find the field in which he could express most effectively his own nature. For a short period he studied at Union College, but left because he felt he could educate himself better, and spent a year traveling in Europe. Then he prepared for law practice, but his first case turned out to be his last because he felt himself little more than a public bloodhound available to the first bidder. After the brief law experience, Bellamy tried journalism, first at New York and then at Springfield, Massachusetts. With his brother Charles he established a newspaper at Springfield, but just about the

For this contribution to our new department, "Classics in the Social Sciences," we are indebted to a professor of history at Dartmouth College in Hanover, New Hampshire. Dr. Riegel, who has contributed numerous articles to *Social Education* and other professional journals, is the author of *The Story of the Western Railroads* (Macmillan, 1930); *America Moves West* (Holt, 1947); *Young America* (University of Oklahoma Press, 1949); and, with Helen Haugh, of *United States of America* (Scribner, 1950), a high school textbook in American history.

¹ Bellamy's life and beliefs are treated authoritatively in two books by A. E. Morgan—*Edward Bellamy* (1944) and *The Philosophy of Edward Bellamy* (1945); the present account has used them extensively.

time the paper began to be profitable he retired, turning over his investment to his brother. Turning to the writing of novels and short stories, he achieved the highest accolade of no less a person than William Dean Howells, but not the financial enthusiasm of the American public.

OUT of Bellamy's fictional writings, several concepts emerged with significant frequency. Most evident was a deep sense of guilt coming from past actions, together with an effort to escape from that guilt, frequently by entering a completely different world. In one story, a machine erased the feeling of guilt. Other stories carried the hero to Mars, to a world fifty years in the future, to a phonographic community, to an island where mental telepathy replaced speech. Various methods were developed to enter these strangely different worlds, but favored was the device of having the hero fall asleep and then awaken under new conditions. Also throughout the Bellamy writings were an intense sympathy for the underdogs of American society, such as the poverty-stricken and the Negroes, and a strong sympathetic attraction for military life; Bellamy had tried unsuccessfully to enter West Point, and during his last fatal illness amused himself by playing on his bed with tin soldiers.

LOOKING BACKWARD

BELLAMY'S one really famous book, *Looking Backward 2000-1887* (1888), started as a relatively simple phantasy, similar to previous ones, but ultimately ended as a sociological treatise describing a brave new world of the future. The hero and presumed author was one Julian West, a well-to-do thirty year old Bostonian of the year 1887, engaged to the charming Edith Bartlett. His one great trouble was insomnia, and to overcome this difficulty he built a sound-proofed underground sleeping chamber and indulged in hypnotism. One night under these circumstances his house burned, and through an unfortunate set of coincidences his friends assumed that he had perished in the fire. The result was that he was permitted to remain in his hypnotic sleep until the year 2000, at which time a Dr. Leete, who now occupied the property with his wife and daughter Edith, awoke him.

The gloriously perfected civilization to which Julian awoke was no Rube Goldberg or Jules Verne miracle of mechanical achievements. Here and there were improvements such as indirect lights and music by wire, but in general people lived as they had in 1887, even to their clothes

and manners. The startling innovations were in social organization, and these were explained to Julian by Dr. Leete—often in rather long and dull speeches. As thus explained, the tendency toward economic consolidation which had existed during the late nineteenth century was continued into the twentieth, until the process was climaxed by one final and universal consolidation under the government. People realized that cold, hunger, and nakedness were the chief foes of men and that their elimination was the proper function of government.

IN THIS new and ideal society everyone worked, including the women and the handicapped, who were provided suitable jobs. This work was by preference and not by compulsion, since income was provided regardless of work. Everyone was educated until the age of twenty-one and then spent three years at some unskilled job; if too few people picked a particular job the working day was shortened until there were enough volunteers. After this three-year period the boy or girl entered the occupation which he preferred, being restricted only by the severity of the educational requirements. Incidentally, certain occupations such as those of lawyer and banker had gone out of existence. The retirement age was forty-five, but income remained the same. Incentive for good work came through a complicated system of grading, with various special honors, including the management job. Top of the industrial organization was the President, elected by people over forty-five so that economic self-interest would be eliminated. The result, according to Dr. Leete, was that: "We have no parties or politicians, and as for demagoguery and corruption, they are words having only an historical significance."

Income was the same for everyone in this ideal state, which meant that the incentive for competitive display disappeared. A credit card was given each person each year, and while he could not save from one year to the next, his income was so satisfactory and the future so assured that there was no desire to save. Inheritance was possible, but Dr. Leete explained that additional goods were usually only a burden and hence given back to the state. Prices were stated in dollars, but no actual money was used; merely the books were balanced at the end of the year. A similar arrangement existed for international trade.

Distribution of goods was accomplished through a relatively few stores that merely dis-

played samples, with clerks to punch credit cards and take care of deliveries. The customer's order was transmitted by pneumatic tube to a central warehouse and the article generally was home before the buyer. Newspapers and magazines also were paid by ration card punches, and the editors were elected by the subscribers. Book publication costs were paid by the author, but if sufficient people allowed their cards to be punched for the books of any author, he could limit his activities to writing. A doctor was picked by the patient, and again a ration card was punched.

THE new system apparently eliminated almost every evil of the past. Family life was better since marriages were never forced by economic pressures or ruined by economic needs. Housecleaning was done by crews of professionals, and most home occupations such as laundry and preserving were done on the outside. Each home had provision for cooking, but most people preferred the restaurants, and during inclement weather awnings protected the streets. Crime practically disappeared; if still existent, the person was sent to a hospital rather than to a prison. The number of mental defectives had declined. Even lying had almost disappeared.

This golden world naturally appealed to Julian, and he was further fascinated by Edith Leete, who turned out to be the great-granddaughter of his former fiancée. And then one morning Julian awakened to find himself back in the nineteenth century. All he had seen of the year 2000 was a dream. He walked down town and saw the pitiful sights of poverty and squalor, crime and human misery. Greeting his friends, he gave them a long didactic speech urging them to become aware of the terrible conditions of their time. Possibly the diatribe was not in the best taste—at least his friends kicked him into the street. Whereupon he really did awaken. 1887 had been the dream and 2000 the

reality. Looking out of the window he saw that "Edith, fresh as the morning, had come into the garden and was gathering flowers. I hastened to descend to her. Kneeling before her, with my face in the dust, I confessed with tears how little was my worth to breathe the air of this golden century, and how infinitely less to wear upon my breast its consummate flower. Fortunate is he who, with a case so desperate as mine, finds a judge so merciful."

INFLUENCE OF THE BOOK

THE Bellamy book might well have been expected to be a failure in a prosperous businessmen's civilization, but actually it was a tremendous success. Apparently it appealed not only to the handful of socialists, but to discontented people in all walks of life. Nationalist Clubs sprang into existence all over the country, and their members studied the word of the master much as their fathers had studied the word of God. Bellamy was in vast demand as a speaker, edited his own paper the *New Nation*, and wrote a sequel, *Equality* (1897), which proved an ineffective rehash. His health did not stand the strain, and his death within a year after the publication of *Equality* made him in a very real sense a martyr to the utopia he preached.

The effects of the Bellamy work have been tremendous even though difficult to document specifically. Among the Americans who have admitted their obligation are such diverse people as Thorstein Veblen, William Allen White, Norman Thomas and Mark Twain. No one can question that Bellamy was at least a straw in the wind, indicating the nature and in some degree the extent of future social controls to be exercised by the government. But even more than acting as a weather vane, Bellamy certainly advanced the cause which he supported. For better or for worse, Bellamy helped a new age to take form.

"In its political aspect we may say that the only fixed point in the American society is the American Constitution; and it . . . is a kind of set of chess rules allowing all the permutations essential to democratic free play. Our society is a shining example of Edmund Burke's dictum, that a state which is without the means of change is without the means of self-preservation. Tocqueville explained this when he wrote in 1835, 'The great privilege of the Americans does not consist in being more enlightened than other nations, but in being free to repair the faults they commit.'" (Lewis Galantiere in *Basic Elements of a Free Democratic Society*. New York: Macmillan, 1951. p. 49)

Seniors' Problems

Raymond Brown

SENIORS' PROBLEMS, as a subject found in the social studies area of the curriculum, has no tradition to justify its strong position. Neither was it originated by the mind of a curriculum expert and sent out to the schools as a "must." Rather, it evolved as a partial answer to the questions of seniors themselves. If there is a subject which just naturally grew, this is it. If there is a subject originated by and for the pupils, this is it. Before the acceptance of the philosophy of education which included "meeting pupil needs," one could not have found a subject entitled Seniors' Problems.

It started in one of the senior high schools of Los Angeles and spread from school to school until, within the last five years, thirty-nine high schools include it as a definite part of the twelfth-grade curriculum. It has spread because many seniors rate it first as a practical study which meets their personal needs and interests.

WHAT is its content? Within the framework of the philosophy of the Los Angeles Schools and within the area of life adjustment for seniors, the content is continuously redesigned to meet the genuine needs of seniors in the immediate environment. It can and does vary from year to year. However, after several years of development it is interesting to note that a pattern has emerged, taking shape around several basic themes.

First, there is the interest in *self*—how to be liked; why one does what he does, and says what he says; the feeling of inadequacy and the compensation therefore; and many of the other problems of the ego and personality. Second, seniors have problems that can be grouped under "You and Your Family." The students are concerned with family relations, with their own thinking about a husband and wife, with dating, and with the ideal home. Third, seniors have problems of

personal economics—problems of spending, buying, and saving. Fourth, seniors are concerned about jobs—about aptitudes and abilities, how to obtain information, how to get and hold a position, and other vocational problems.

The course, "Seniors' Problems," is concerned with the seniors' adjustment to life. It is terminal education for them, ending their experience with the public schools. It exists for the purpose of meeting their present needs in their ongoing careers. It seeks, above all else, to satisfy each youth's desire for a better personal adjustment.

As an illustration of what is meant by continuously redesigning the course to meet current seniors' needs, here are questions which will be included in the appropriate unit this year.

1. How can we help young people to build a philosophy of life strong enough to overcome a feeling of insecurity because of war conditions?
2. How can we help young people to overcome mental defeatism? What things remain stable regardless of current conditions?
3. How can we help young people to combat the attitude of "Why not stop work and enjoy ourselves—tomorrow we're drafted?"
4. How can we make our personal attitudes and behavior more democratic?
5. If young men have to go to war what possibilities are there for making the best use of such an experience?
6. How can we help young people to understand that when they serve in foreign lands they are representing our country? What kind of actions give a favorable impression of our country?
7. How can we deal with the problem of the disruption or breakup of homes because of war conditions?
8. Should marriage be hastened because of war?
9. What special problems do war marriages present?
10. What help does a girl need who may have to be head of the family if her husband goes to war?
11. How can one plan for future occupations in spite of war conditions?
12. Should one finish high school or enlist right now?
13. What careers are possible for either boys or girls in military service?
14. How should the possibility of being drafted affect one's plans for going to college?
15. Shall girls plan for marriage or war work after graduation?
16. Does the possibility of wartime activities increase a girl's need to be trained for some occupation?
17. How can we help young people react wisely to the possible "Employment Boom"?
18. How shall we adjust ourselves to living under high taxes?

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Revolt in Egypt

Henry C. Atyeo

THE colonizers (British) must know that Egypt's patience is exhausted and that she will attain her rights, whatever the obstacles," stormed Premier Mustafa El Nahas Pasha before a frenzied, fanatical crowd at a recent mass meeting in Alexandria. "It (the Anglo-Egyptian treaty) must be cancelled," he continued, amid wild cheers, "and will be in a very short time."

The occasion for this latest tirade against British power was the anniversary of the signing of the treaty in 1936. This anniversary offered an excellent opportunity for the Premier and his Wafdist cohorts to demand again that the obstacles to Egyptian unity and nationalism be removed. The obstacles, according to the Wafdists, included: (1) the presence of British forces in Egypt; (2) the existence of the Anglo-Egyptian treaty of 1936; and (3) the continuation of the condominium status of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

EGYPT'S CASE

TO THE casual observer it appears that the Egyptian government has a very strong case against the British. Surely the presence of a foreign legion on a country's shore weakens that nation's sovereignty, as does Britain's control of the Suez Canal Zone and her right to use Egypt's military facilities in case of war. To the Egyptians, this latter privilege means that Egypt may be called upon to fight England's wars and to help Britain maintain what the Egyptians consider an out-moded form of imperialism. Equally objectionable to Egypt is the foreign control of her water supply along the upper reaches of the Nile as it flows through the Sudan. For these reasons, the Egyptian Premier again de-

mands that the British abandon the Suez Canal Zone—the 2,000,000 acre, \$500,000,000, 40,000 man defense area in the Middle East. The story behind these demands, however, reveals that Britain also has a right to a different point of view.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

IN THE days of Queen Victoria, Egypt was ruled by Khedive Ismail Pasha, ostentatious monarch by right of title received from the sultan of Turkey. His grandiose dreams of greatness led him to embark on ambitious projects that he financed by means of bonds floated by British and French bankers at 40 percent interest. The loans were intended for badly needed internal improvements in Egypt, but, unfortunately, much of the money found its way into the personal coffers of the Khedive.

For sixteen years he was an oriental potentate, basking in the delusion of great wealth and entertained by his harem of 3,000 women, whom he attired in Parisian gowns. Equally famous were his stables of Arabian race horses.

As for the Egyptian people, little was done to alleviate their poverty and misery, even though some 9,000 miles of canals were built and some 4,500 schools were opened. Only the completion of the Suez Canal may be considered an outstanding achievement of the Khedive's reign.

As soon as the foreign loans were used up the usurious rates piled high the debt and the government went into default. Ismail's palace was besieged by European creditors, and, under pressure, he abdicated and went into exile where, it is alleged, he died while trying to drink two bottles of champagne at one draught.

The French and British bondholders immediately demanded protection from their governments which, in turn, imposed "dual control" over Egyptian finances. Although the interest on the debt was collected, the increased burden upon the people resulted in open revolt. Since intervention with armed force seemed the only course to follow, the British bombarded Alexandria in 1882, and soon occupied the country.

Of far greater interest to the British than the collection of debts was the control of the Suez

Canal, which she quickly recognized as her lifeline to India. Even before Ismail's abdication, Britain bought the Egyptian government's interest in the canal and soon came to control 44 per cent of the shares. Britain's interest in the canal made her occupation of the country seem logical for only by that control were her interests fully protected.

UNDER Britain's protection many improvements were made in Egypt. Railroads were built, irrigation projects extended, and the government reorganized. The British court system was introduced and order maintained. British occupation, however, seemed little more to the Egyptians than imperial exploitation. Many demonstrations and riots marked the unhappy 1880's and 1890's and indicated a growing spirit of nationalism which only intensified the hatred of the British. Assassination became the political hazard for all those identified with the British; xenophobia became the national psychosis.

Gradually British troops penetrated the upper Nile valley and finally occupied the entire Sudan. The area became an important source of cotton for the British mills, as well as a link in the completion of Rhodes' Cape-to-Cairo plan. Later, a native insurrection caused the British to withdraw from the Sudan temporarily, but they continued to think of it as their "sphere of influence."

When a French expedition succeeded in 1898 in hoisting its flag over the town of Fashoda on the Nile, the British and Egyptians dispatched troops to the area. Only by the withdrawal of the French was war averted and British occupation of the Sudan again assured. By agreement with the Egyptian government on January 19, 1899, the Sudan was made a condominium which brought a joint Anglo-Egyptian government into existence.

At the beginning of World War I in 1914, the Khedive joined with the Turks against England and her allies. He was soon deposed and England declared a protectorate over Egypt. By the end of the war the spirit of nationalism quickened the people to demand complete independence again. The nationalists or Wafdists directed an anti-British propaganda struggle until 1922 when their leader, Soad Zahglul, succeeded in gaining a promise of independence from England. Although the British withdrew their troops, they still reserved certain privileges, including a continuation of their control of the Sudan.

Two years later Sir Lee Stack, Governor Gen-

eral of the Sudan, was assassinated by an Egyptian nationalist. Britain immediately responded by increasing her forces and by requiring that the Egyptian soldiers withdraw from the Sudan. In the ensuing years many heated discussions occurred over Anglo-Egyptian relations in which the freedom of the Sudan became the paramount issue.

When the Italians invaded Ethiopia in 1935 the Egyptians became fearful for the freedom and security of their country. The invading force in their neighbor's country seemed too close a threat to be ignored, and talk of an alliance with a strong country increased. England was very willing to oblige, with the result that before long the Egyptian representatives, including Mustafa El Nahas Pasha, the present Prime Minister, were on their way to London to arrange for a treaty.

THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN TREATY OF 1936

IT WAS on August 26, 1936, that Premier Nahas Pasha announced to his people that accord had been reached and a treaty of friendship had been signed. England was heralded as Egypt's ally, and protection was assured against all enemies. The "protection" included England's right to maintain 10,000 men and 400 airplanes in the Suez Canal Zone for 20 years, until such time as Egypt could build up a force sufficiently powerful to take over such duties. The treaty also gave England the use of Alexandria and Port Said as naval bases and the further right to move troops over Egyptian territory in the event of war or threat of war. Eventually England would remove all her forces when the stability of the Egyptian government and the strength of the native army permitted it. The immediate Egyptian reaction was one of complete approval. Even Nahas Pasha himself hailed the treaty as a "step towards Egyptian independence."

When World War II began the strategic importance of the Canal Zone was again demonstrated. Winston Churchill sent all the available troops to Egypt, even stripping the British Isles of military units which might have been needed for protection of the homeland. The British "desert rats" fought stubbornly against Rommel's advancing forces for two desperate years, and for a time it seemed that the Germans might take all of Egypt and destroy British power in the Levant. Persistent advance of Rommel's *Afrika Korps* brought them almost in sight of the pyramids, but they were finally stopped at El Alamein. Slowly the Germans were driven back to

Tripoli, and the vital lifeline was preserved for the Western allies.

After the war England continued to control the Canal Zone and to exert greater influence in Egyptian internal affairs. The military personnel of the Zone increased to 35,000 or 40,000 troops; immense supply depots, airfields and aircraft defenses were built up. Unfortunately, the post-war years were not years of peace and achievement for the Egyptian people. The young King Farouk and his advisers failed to carry out their "paper" promises and the economic lot of the people remained at a poverty level. Rumbings of dissatisfaction were heard in the Court, only to be overcome temporarily by loudly proclaimed promises by the government. Amid internal intrigue, graft and corruption, the government faced embarrassment until a scapegoat could be found to account for all of Egypt's ills.

The way out of the dilemma seemed to be to divert attention from domestic troubles to international problems. Yet even in the field of diplomacy the government faced difficulty and defeat. Military intervention in the Israel-Arab conflict left only ill feeling toward, and criticism of, the government. Subsequent attempts to work out agreement with the Arab states ended in failure, with the net result that in the end Egyptian foreign policy fared little better than domestic reform. The one remaining issue which could be used as a rallying point to bolster the prestige of an already unpopular government was to attack the British and the Anglo-Egyptian treaty of 1936.

EGYPTIAN DEMANDS FOR COMPLETE INDEPENDENCE

ON NOVEMBER 16, 1950, Prime Minister Nahas Pasha went before the Parliament to read a speech from the throne in which King Farouk demanded immediate evacuation of the Suez Zone and abrogation of the 1936 treaty. Egyptian armed forces were to be immediately reorganized and the entire country placed under native political control. The government further pledged itself to lower the cost of living. The Premier's speech was followed by wild demonstrations in which thousands rioted through the streets, leaving some 41 persons, including 33 policemen, injured. A few days later, the Egyptian foreign minister threatened that "Egypt will not join the Atlantic Pact if this means joint defense or the stationing of foreign troops on Egyptian soil."

In reply to Egyptian demands, British Foreign

Minister Bevin announced that England had no intention of terminating the Anglo-Egyptian treaty unless by mutual consent. Moreover, England would never leave the Middle East defenseless; rather, England would continue to supply Egypt with arms and fulfill her obligations to the Egyptians. A shipment of 16 tanks was postponed, however, because of the possibility that these would be used against the British.

The reaction to Bevin's speech was immediate in Egypt. Thousands of university students rioted in Cairo, resulting in an additional police guard for the British Embassy. Demonstrations continued until England placed all her forces in Egypt on an alert and announced several out-of-bounds areas for her troops. The Ministry of Interior expressed its regrets for the "incidents" which had occurred and attempted to keep the students from staging protest demonstrations.

THE early months of 1951 saw little change in the situation. Negotiations continued for the withdrawal of British troops, and in April the British Cabinet seemed inclined to yield to some of Egypt's demands. On the first day of May the Egyptian foreign minister Salah al-Din reviewed the negotiations between England and his government and again demanded complete evacuation and unity of the Nile Valley. Within two weeks King Farouk met a political crisis in his government by appointing 36 Wafd party members to the Senate. This gave the Wafd a clear majority and thus strengthened their position and control of the government. It was, then, with a great deal of confidence, that Prime Minister Nahas Pasha in his speech in Alexandria at the end of August declared, "... Egypt's patience is exhausted. . . ." Later, other defiant speeches by government officials again incited the students to riot, only to be dispersed after eight had been wounded. Fury and frenzy, easily created, cannot be quickly eliminated.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF RECENT EVENTS

IT IS very doubtful that King Farouk or even the Wadist government really want the British to leave. There are too many domestic problems to be settled; there are the poverty-stricken peasants and the restless city mob to be placated; and there is always a fear of unseen enemies. The removal of British troops would leave the Middle East undefended, and Egypt knows that the country could easily become a battleground for control of the Suez Canal Zone. Furthermore, British troops help to maintain

the uneasy armistice between Israel and the Arab states. The British troops become, in reality, a leveling influence for peace and security, not a threat to Egypt's government and independence.

At the moment, the tirade against the British follows a pattern so often repeated throughout Egyptian history. As already noted, the Egyptians have passed through a number of cycles of enmity and friendship with the British. Whenever there is danger from the outside, the Egyptians look to Britain for protection; whenever there is domestic difficulty, the people's attention is diverted by speeches against the protector. Even the 75-year old, tired, ailing Nahas Pasha, who made the Anglo-Egyptian treaty in 1936 and heralded it as a step toward independence, now condemns the same treaty and the same friendship with England. With only four more years for the treaty to run (1956) it seems rather inconsistent for the Egyptians to demand immediate abrogation when the whole Middle East is seething with unrest and when British troops are needed to secure peace and security.

The unrest in Egypt has been intensified by events in Iran. The nationalization of oil, the seizure of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's property, the exit of British technicians, and even the Iranian defiance of the right of the International Court and the Security Council to settle a "domestic matter," have all had repercussions in Egypt. The Iranian situation provided an excellent opportunity for the *Al Midoa*, weekly newspaper of the Wafdist party, to affirm, "We do not believe that the Egyptian nation is less valorous and less courageous than the Persian nation which spat in the face of imperialism." Even so, the statement seems little more than a propagandist technique to draw attention to a chauvinistic interest in independence.

POSSIBILITIES OF ACCORD IN ANGLO-EGYPTIAN RELATIONS

THE future destiny of Anglo-Egyptian relations may be determined by one of four groups in Egypt. It may be that a Moslem brotherhood, so important and powerful in most Middle East countries, may become influential enough to gain control of the government.

Or it may be that the Communist party, now outlawed, will gain sufficient strength to challenge the unstable government. Already signs point in this direction. There exist in Egypt well organized cells of university students which follow the Communist line. Communist front newspapers, which carefully operate within the law,

are increasing rapidly. The technique which is so often followed in other countries is being used in Egypt today. It is well explained by a Western diplomat who recently said, "The Communists are playing an extremely clever line. They are anti-monarchy, anti-government, anti-American, anti-everything. They are taking the vast, creeping discontent in this country and surely binding it into a movement."

The third group which may force political reform and improve foreign relations is the fellahs or peasants. This group, which includes 70 per cent of Egypt's population, consists of the farmers who are defying the feudal land-holding practices of the pasha aristocrats. The fellahs, or fellahin, originally found a voice through the Wafdist party, but recently the Wafdist have become champions of the small ruling minority. The danger of the fellah movement is that it may not become an effective voice in itself to achieve badly needed reforms but may have to turn to religious or Communist groups to advance its cause. Failing this, the fellahs may resort to internal disorder and revolution which might easily overthrow the government.

The last and most promising group which may bring stability is the government itself. King Farouk, whose popularity is at low ebb at the present time, is a capable ruler and may become the most important monarch of the Middle East. Although his recent escapades on his thirteen-week honeymoon have not increased national respect for him, he still is sovereign to his people. If he is able to gather the more moderate and progressive leaders of the Wafdist and Saadist parties around him and initiate an energetic program of internal reform he may still be the idol of his people. Many feel that, "If Farouk were to emerge tomorrow as an active, constructive champion of genuine social democracy, the Egyptian people's discontent would vanish overnight."

England, and the United States, too, can well afford to do everything possible to stabilize the economic and political forces which are working for social equality and improvement of conditions in Egypt. Internal reform seems to be the way through which amicable foreign relations may be achieved. When such relations are established the Western countries will become recipients of the goodwill of the people and government, and Egypt may take her place along with Greece and Turkey in the North Atlantic treaty organizations. Surely, no amount of interest, effort, and money should be spared to achieve such a promising future.

The Local Scene in American History Teaching

Ralph A. Brown

THE educational literature of the past two decades evidences a growing interest in the local community. There have been many different aspects of this interest. We have seen, for example, the emphasis upon the community-centered school. Shaker Heights, Ohio, is one of the better known examples of this attempt to make the public school a center of the recreational, social, and intellectual life of the community. The study of the community as an integral part of the curriculum has been attempted at many different grade levels. The files of *Social Education* bear testimony to the increasing numbers of social studies teachers who have introduced units of community study into their class work.¹ Recent years have also seen a greater attempt on the part of the public school to study and meet the needs of the community.² Some curriculum workers advocate the participation of community groups and individuals in the creation of the school curriculum,³ maintaining that this procedure will vitalize the curriculum and strengthen community life.

STUDY OF LOCAL AND STATE HISTORY

PARALLELING the growth of interest in the local scene, the study of local and state history in the schools has been increasing rapidly. There are many indications of this new tendency. The American Association for State and Local History has served as an increasingly effective clearing house for the work of those who have been interested in the teaching of local or regional units. A number of states have passed legislation requiring the study of the history of their own area

either in the elementary school or in the ninth grade. Of equal significance, and certainly of greater value, has been the movement on the part of certain state historical associations to encourage interest in local history. Texas, Pennsylvania, and New York have been the leaders in this movement. The literature of their activities and achievements is full of suggestions for the social studies teacher. Other states have followed their lead.

¹ See, for example, the following articles that appeared in *Social Education* between April 1939 and May 1947: Erling M. Hunt, "Community Resources," 3: 223-24; April 1939. Alma M. Jensen, "On Trial—A Regional Program in Minnesota," 3: 554-60; November 1939. Katherine L. Clarke, "Making Community Study Effective in the Grades," 4: 111-14; February 1940. Lillian C. Parham, "Out-of-School Environments and Activities of Junior High School Pupils," 6: 27-30; January 1942. Lloyd Allen Cook, "Educating for Community Action and Unity," 6: 304-08; November 1942. Royce H. Knapp, "American Regionalism and Social Education," 6: 362-65; December 1942. Lowry Nelson, "Planning and Organizing Cooperative Community Projects," 7: 68-70; February 1943. Walter Ludwig, "Ration Stamps and Salvage: A Tenth Grade Project," 7: 205-08; May 1943. Richard H. McFeely, Walter F. Mohr, Katherine Smedley, and Elbridge M. Smith, "A Cooperative Community Survey," 7: 355-57; December 1943. Edith V. Sherman, "Students Attack Community Problems," 8: 213-15; May 1944. Ardy H. Johnson, "Rooting the Ninth Grade Problem in the Community," 10: 217-18; May 1946. Ethel E. Price, "Nine-Year-Olds Study Community Health," 11: 68-70; February 1947. Mary K. Dabney, "Social Studies and Community Service," 11: 202-04; May 1947.

² See, for example, *Exploring Your Environment*, issued by the New York State Education Department in 1943. Jensen, *op. cit.*, in speaking of the Krey Regional Program in Minnesota, wrote, "In general, it is the aim of the new curriculum to develop in the pupil, year by year, a greater fund of information about, and understanding of the community in which he lives, and the broader implications of the activities he observes; a more vital interest in these activities and an appreciation of their dignity and worth; a greater skill in finding and using the many sources of information which will contribute to his understanding; and a greater and better understanding of his relations to the world in which he lives."

³ William J. Krupp, Jr., and Ralph Adams Brown, "Criteria for the Evaluation of Curriculum Change," *School and Society*, 66: 219-21; September 21, 1947.

This is the first of a series of articles dealing with the use of local history, particularly local biography, in the social studies program. Dr. Brown, who for a number of years has served as editor of this journal's department of Pamphlets and Government Publications, is professor of history and chairman of the social studies department at the State University Teachers College in Cortland, New York.

LOCAL BIOGRAPHY

GREATER interest in and understanding of the local community and local history can be developed through the use of local biography, meaning the study of the individuals of local significance.⁴ Local biography is, of course, a part of local history. The study of the lives of individuals who have participated in the development of a given area cannot be dissociated from the history of that area. Furthermore, local biography strikes a responsive chord within the community. Study of the lives of individuals known by or related to persons now living in a given community catches attention, awakens instincts of pride, and arouses interest in the work of the school.

The amount of material to be covered in any given course in history is continually expanding. This is because of the increasing length of the historical period, because of the results of new research, and because we now emphasize many areas of history—such as cultural and intellectual—that were formerly ignored or slighted. One result of this tendency to stretch the textbook treatment of history broader and thinner has been less emphasis on the treatment of the exciting personal element in history—namely, biography.⁵ An early emphasis on local biographical material may well lead to greater interest in and study of biography throughout history. There are tremendous psychological and sociological implications, as yet unexplored, in such study.

Almost every community can provide a large amount of biographical material to be used by teachers and students, not only in making the past more real but also as starting points for a study of the larger community, and as laboratory devices for learning the elements of historical criticism.

VALUE OF COMMUNITY STUDY

LOCAL biography becomes, then, a means for utilizing some of the values of community study within the framework of American history. It will be shown in the series of articles, of which this is the first, that this bringing of the com-

munity into the content of the American history course add to the value and effectiveness of that course. These articles utilize actual community data from a real town, Cornish, New Hampshire, a town of fewer than 1,000 population that was settled in 1763. A fictional approach using an imaginary country school and imaginary teachers and pupils has been devised as a means of illustrating the use of such materials, and of showing how the study of local biography in the schools of the community can improve school-community relations.

FROM JERUSALEM TO SARATOGA

MISS ALICE MUNSEY looked at the clock on her desk with more than exasperation. A quarter of eleven, there was no question about it, and that meant current events with the seventh and eighth grades. She had been teaching the upper four grades in the school at Cornish Center only a month, and yet she had learned that the most dreadful half-hour of the entire week began at 10:45 on Friday mornings. Why did the superintendent insist on current events anyway? She had never liked the current events periods in her own school days, and she was sure that few if any of her students enjoyed them. Well, she could put it off no longer.

With a nod of her head, a faint smile, and a tap of the bell on her desk she dismissed the sixth grade geography class and turned to the upper two grades. Lewis Avery was half asleep, she noted. That meant another note to Lew's mother. And Rachel Jones was chewing bubble gum again.

Another glance at the clock. Three minutes had passed. If the next twenty-seven would only move as quickly! She shrugged her shoulders: "Seventh and eighth grade current events class will now recite." Someone had kicked Lewis Avery, and he woke up with a start; Rachel had at least momentarily lost her bubble gum. Eighteen boys and girls fumbled in eighteen desks, then sat up straight, each with a piece of newspaper at hand. Three or four of them would be called on, would read, haltingly and with little understanding, a clipping torn from the preceding day's *Claremont Eagle* or *Boston Post*. Then, and Miss Munsey could hardly wait for the moment, the period would be over for another week.

"Sarah Osborne, what have you brought for current events?"

A tall scrawny girl rose from her seat, giggled, looked out of the corner of her eye at the boy sitting next to her, and then read three or four

⁴For an interesting and suggestive development of biographical materials in the area of an entire state, see Mary Lilla McLure, *Louisiana Leaders, 1830-1860*, Shreveport, Louisiana: Journal Printing Co., 1937. 78 p.

⁵For the results of a significant study in this area, see: L. A. Williams, *The Person-Consciousness of a Selected Group of High School Pupils* (University of California Publications in Education). Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1931. Vol. 6, No. 2, p. 85-138.

paragraphs about a speech on Western grazing lands that had been made by the Governor of Idaho at a chamber of Commerce banquet in Boise. Miss Munsey explained the difference between Idaho and Iowa, gave the right pronunciation for the capital of the former state, and then called on Rachel Jones.

Rachel had brought the whole front page of the paper, including a map, and began to read how the new army in Israel was driving back the Arab Legion in the Negev Desert. Desperate for something that would break the monotony, Miss Munsey interrupted her, turned to one of the boys, and asked, "Richard, is there anything unusual or noteworthy in this Jewish success?"

"Aw, Miss Munsey," blurted out Richard, "I don't believe a word of it. That's just propaganda. My brother fought with Patton, and he says a bunch of farmers can't lick a trained army."

For the first time in days, Lew Avery was frantically waving his hand in the air.

"Yes, Lew?"

"Miss Munsey, of course they can do it. Cornish farmers, right from this very town, marched to Saratoga and helped lick a trained British army under Burgoyne. My father was telling me about it last night."

Ready to grasp any straw that might mean even a moment of relief, Miss Munsey was yet unprepared for the hum of interest that ran around the room. Little girls in the fifth grade stopped coloring and looked at Lewis, geographies and grammars and arithmetics clattered on desk tops as the whole room became a question mark. Richard Linsey, his face red and belligerent, shouted "Aw, nuts! I remember reading about Saratoga last year when we studied the American revolution, but Miss Meek didn't say a thing about Cornishmen fighting there. Your father is nuts."

"Don't you call my father nuts, you. . ."

"Children, children." Then, as the room quieted down, Miss Munsey had an inspiration. "How can we find out whether Richard or Lewis is right?"

"We can ask Lewis' father."

"We can ask our own parents."

"We can look in the Town History—my mother has a copy."

"We can go to the library tomorrow and ask Mrs. Dean."

"We can ask old Mr. Jameson, he's been Town Clerk for ages and ages, and he knows just lots about Cornish."

The answers fairly tumbled over one another, the youngsters were that eager to find out whether

Lewis or Richard had been right. Behind the back of his hand one small boy whispered to another, "I bet Lewis punches Richard at recess."

Miss Munsey snapped her fingers, two or three times, and then the room was quiet. "All right, children, let's do all of those things. Edna, you look in your mother's Town History. Lewis, you talk with your father again, and be sure to ask him how he heard about the Cornishmen going to Saratoga. Everyone who can go to the library, at the Flat, should ask Mrs. Dean if she can help you. And I'll ask Mr. Jameson myself; perhaps he can help me with some other problems that have been bothering me. And Monday, as soon as we've had our morning exercises, we'll have our reports. Then you can all decide whether or not Cornish farmers really did help defeat a trained British army."

"Miss Munsey," asked the smallest fifth grader, "Can we try to find out, too?"

"Yes, Gladys, everyone here can try to find the answer."

THE NEAR-AT-HAND

THE above, of course, is a purely imaginary incident in a school house in a very real town, Cornish, New Hampshire. The incident could have happened there, however, or with slight variations, in any schoolroom in the nation. Boys and girls, young men and women, all the way from the lower grades to the university, have time and again demonstrated a new interest, a genuine desire to learn, when things which are near at hand, are known intimately by them, are substituted for the remote and impersonal.

This interest in the near-at-hand takes different forms. Sometimes it is an interest in the past development of their town or region, and then we call it local history. Again, it may be an interest in the present problems that face their town or state, and we call it community civics. Perhaps it is an intense interest in how their locality can be made better in the future—community planning. This particular study deals with the use of personal data, both present and past, from the community, thus with the use of local biographical materials. All are, of course, part of the same general interest, and all are stimulated by the natural curiosity of the student in that which lies near at hand, which can be seen or felt or experienced, which lies within the circumference of his own knowledge and understanding.

Local biography is a part of local history, just as biography is a part of history. The values and

methods that will be talked about in this study as applicable to local biography would also be used in a discussion of local history. The emphasis is being placed on biographical materials not because they are superior to historical materials of a non-personal nature, and not because the teacher will find them unique, but because there has been, in the last decade, much interest in the use of local historical materials without much appreciation of the personal data this is a part of any local past.

The boys and girls of Miss Munsey's school-room would have found, beyond any doubt whatsoever, that Cornishmen, perhaps thirty or forty of them, had gone to Saratoga. In fact, that they had gone twice, and that they and all of the men from the River towns had been commanded by the man who was the outstanding figure in the early history of their town—Jonathan Chase, then a Colonel and later a General. They would have found frequent references to him in the town history, written some forty years ago by Deacon Child. They would have discovered that dozens of Cornish residents know stories about the old General, and that many of his personal and military papers are preserved in the Selectmen's Office. They would have become impressed with the General's importance to state and nation, as well as to their own town.

Can anyone doubt that, in the process, there would have been awakened interest? Curiosity? Enthusiasm? And can anyone imagine that Miss Munsey, granting initiative and imagination on her part, would have found it difficult to make Friday mornings at 10:45 one of the most anticipated periods of the entire week? Or that conditions and problems in Palestine, and later in many other parts of the world, became more real because those Cornish youngsters had discovered the relatedness of history? Of the world? Or that those youngsters gained new insight and understanding into the world in which they lived?

Whenever one discusses teaching about the past there are those who shout "antiquarianism." It is true, of course, that many of the activities of a local historical society deal merely with the past for the past's sake. Correspondingly, teachers who use local historical materials in the classroom may lose sight of the genuine values to be derived from the use of such materials and may come to accept the fact that age alone gives value and usefulness. That such a situation can exist is no logical argument against the use of the local past. It should serve only as a warning, and not as a brake.

THE VALUE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

WHAT are these values that can be realized through the use of personal data to be found in the immediate locality of any school-house? It is obvious that Miss Munsey found one of them. Interest is something that cannot be overvalued. There are many factors involved in the learning process but perhaps no one of them is as important as that of student interest. Just as the imaginary Cornish youngsters found an interest that drove them into a genuine learning situation, so any group of boys and girls, or men and women, will be likely to find a new interest in any activity that centers about or starts from a familiar situation.

Teachers at every level who have struggled with historical materials know that one of the major problems they face is that of making their instruction realistic. For more than half a century, teachers have been reporting on their success in achieving reality through the use of local materials.

We assume the importance of a knowledge of the past not for the mere acquisition of historical learning, but that our future men and women can understand their present in terms of its contrast with the past. We believe that democracy's citizens must know that things don't just happen; there is cause and there is effect. We may not be in agreement about the causes. Neither are we in agreement about present conditions. The idea of historical continuity, however, is essential to an understanding of the present and to an intelligent preparation for the future. The third of the major values that can be derived from the use of local biographical materials is applicable in this connection. Our students will be more likely to understand the present as they become aware of the present's contrasts with the past. Those contrasts can be developed through the use of local, personal materials.

Finally, and many people would say that this is the most important of the values, local biographical materials can be used to develop skills in historical method. Both followers and leaders in a democracy need to be alert to error, to be able to distinguish between degrees of possibility or probability, to recognize prejudice and to value objectivity.

Interest, realism, historical continuity, critical thinking—each of these values, as it can be realized through the incorporation of local biographical materials into American history content, will be discussed in the succeeding articles in this series.

Generalized Education

Edgar Dale

IF YOU read the speeches of college presidents and deans, you will find that they have come out unequivocally for a broad education and against a highly specialized or specific education. They are against vocationalism, and for an education that is good for everybody.

I am for these things, too, even though I'm not quite sure what they mean. But I submit that we are not reaching this kind of objective in much of our college teaching. I'd like to discuss general education and see if there isn't some way in which we can use films or radio or other audio-visual materials to achieve a more effective general education.

LET us examine the word *general*. Too often we mistakenly use it as meaning *not specific*. Yet a general education that has not been specific is no more possible than being a man before you have been a boy. Specificity and generality are little boys and big men.

Some say that in general education we want to get away from hundreds of specifics. You can't do it by giving up specifics or concreteness or illustration. The only way to move away from specifics is to build them into generalizations. As William James once said: "We can only see as far into a generalization as our knowledge of its details extends."

But specificity does not automatically move into generality. Specifics become fruitful generalizations because we *make* them so, we purposely work for generalization.

We cannot master generalizations in the same way that we can master specifics. A little vocational trick can be easily mastered because it is usually quite concrete and specific. You can quickly learn to tie a knot in a certain way or do a repetitive operation with a machine, as in a factory. The beginning and end of the process is "at hand," is "visible." It is a closed experience as far as one's responsibility is concerned.

But the difference between the specific and the general is that the general is always an open-ended, never a closed event. It has a growing edge. We might better speak of *generalized* education rather than general education, since we should emphasize the process rather than the product.

The difference between a narrow and a broad education is that in the former you get things over with. You finish with them. You circumscribe the range of connections with other life experiences. Man as generalizer, however, sees all activities as "suffused with suggestiveness" (in Whitehead's phrase).

You cannot *add up* specifics to get a generalization. You must integrate them, put them into a pattern, reconstruct them. Otherwise you're in the dilemma of the fellow who said that he could read the words all right but the sentences bothered him a lot.

Specificity, therefore, is important and incapable. It is not antithetical to general education but corollary and anterior to it. The fact that an experience is a narrow one *at this time* is not unfavorable as far as later generalization is concerned. The issue is the dynamic quality of the experience itself. Is narrowness moving into broadness, is specificity moving toward generality? These are the questions to be asked.

Further, it is only through our own generalizing that we get generalizations. We must make our own. I'm not certain how systematically we can grow these generalizations. Certainly I would try to do it as systematically and logically as I could, knowing that when we deal with large classes, we cannot follow theories of learning which might apply if we had individual tutors.

There has been a good deal of discussion about orientation as a part of general education. We try to orient the student to the problems of the world—give him a general view, we say. But you can't be given a general point of view; you have to create it yourself. Some of these orientation courses have been like the Powder River in Montana, a mile wide and a foot deep. They do not really orient and are quickly forgotten.

Certain so-called broad courses have been unsuccessful because they have attempted to cover

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the ground rather than to uncover it. They have merchandised high-level abstractions and generalizations which could not be understood by the students. We can, of course, go to the opposite extreme and think that we ought to spend all of our time uncovering ground at one spot, and cover no other ground. Some kind of balance is necessary. In any case, however, we must uncover enough ground to develop significant generalizations. Otherwise there is no product, because there has been no process.

What should we do about it? Generalized education requires less text and more context. We must teach fewer generalizations and more generalizing. My proposal basically is the introduction of increasing amounts of concrete material at the interest level of the learner. These materials should be introduced to teach students how to generalize with skill, as subject matter for building generalizations. Sometimes these rich, concrete experiences can be introduced through films, recordings, field trips, and the like. But sometimes these concrete experiences are already in the heads of the students, unused.

Generalization of an inadequate sort is always being done. We generalize all data, both adequate and inadequate. We assume that one swallow makes a summer, that a few unfavorable or indeed favorable experiences with people outside our normal range of experience proves their excellence or badness. Obviously it is disciplined generalization that we are after.

IT IS possible, it seems to me, to take certain over-arching problems—problems of living—and use them both preceding and following the studies of subject-matters, depending upon the level of generalization sought. A kind of correlative, interstitial curriculum can be set down inside present subject-matter arrangements.

To teach in these problem fields requires a cluster of concrete and semi-concrete experiences. It requires a variety of teaching materials, including charts, maps, graphs, models, exhibits, field trips, recordings, filmstrips and motion pictures, plays, socio-drama. This is the stuff out of which generalization is made. These beads of experience must be strung together on some hypothesis, some purpose, in order to give them lasting meaning. There must be generalizing.

The field of mental health is one of these over-arching problem areas. A recent report of the National Association for Mental Health lists 45 films dealing with mental health. I note that only one of these films was produced before

1940. The great bulk of them was developed after 1945. These films and other related material can be used to develop a cluster of rich experiences in the field of mental health, a source of fruitful generalizing.

Now books on mental health are important as a part of general education. They must be used. Books represent the intellectual deposit of specific experiences which have been developed into important generalizations. Yet books alone are not enough. The first-hand generalizations of the author become second-hand generalizations of the students. Books lack the specificity, the warmth, indeed some of the unutterable poignancy of concrete experiences. Through direct, purposeful, first-hand experiences and semi-concrete audio-visual materials, we can supply the context for sound generalizing.

In our zest for general education, we must not forget that when you read, you put meaning into the printed page, and that words are reminders of experiences we have had or that other people have had. Unless these words have taken hold of us, unless they have the warmth and richness of a letter from home, they aren't going to convey much meaning.

IN TEACHING history, for example, we are trying to get youngsters to remember things that happened hundreds and hundreds of years ago, when many of them cannot easily remember what happened in the last ten years. We must, therefore, by motion picture, by drama and exhibit, by other means reconstruct the past.

Sometimes, for teaching purposes, we can reconstruct an entire colonial village, as at Williamsburg, Virginia. If students can afford it, they can go and see what life was like in a fairly prosperous colonial community. They will discover (probably to their amazement) that the furniture, the china, the wallpaper, the architecture, will in many cases show more taste and discrimination than we have today. It was gracious living, based in part on slave labor. We can also "reconstruct" Williamsburg for our students through the color film, "Williamsburg Restored."

If we want to reconstruct important events of the last fifty years, we can see them in a film titled, "Fifty Years Before Your Eyes." It runs a little more than an hour. No history teacher can teach as much history as does this film in that period of time. The film provides rich material out of which to develop disciplined generalizations.

(Concluded on page 27)

Guidance and the Social Studies

Gervais W. Ford

THE social studies teacher is under obligation to understand the need for guidance and to render such help as he can," writes Edgar B. Wesley. He maintains, further, that "while social as opposed to personal conduct will continue to be the main concern of the social studies, they cannot and should not shirk their responsibilities for helping to develop wholesome personalities. Perhaps the social studies need a degree of personalization."¹ With this admonition in mind, we examined a number of social studies courses and school programs at the secondary level.

GUIDANCE ELEMENTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A CURSORY survey of courses of study has revealed that in several secondary schools the units offered under the heading of social studies were offered in other schools as part of a core program. Such units as Educational and Vocational Planning, Problems in Making a Living, Preparing for College, Consumer Education, Social Relationships of Boys and Girls, Psychology of Human Behavior, and Home and Family Relations were in this category. As a result of an investigation made by Chester Babcock concerning units of study required in the Problems courses in sixty-five high schools, it can be shown that at least five of the twenty-five most frequently taught units were phases of group-guidance.²

A case in point is Evansville, Indiana, which several year ago listed the "pupil-learning experiences" desired in ninth-grade English, Business Education, Citizenship, General Mathematics, and Group-Guidance. There was a considerable overlapping in the offerings of Citizenship and Group-Guidance. Of the 62 experiences listed

under the Citizenship course, one experience was similar to a unit listed under Group-Guidance as "Orientation into the School." Another was similar to the "Taking-Advantage-of-Education" unit, and six others were closely related to the single broad unit in Group-Guidance called "Personal Traits—Personality, Courtesy, Patriotism, and Citizenship." In addition, five experiences listed under the course in Citizenship could have been included under the Group-Guidance problem of "Choosing a Vocation"; and at least three more had to do with "Making Use of Leisure Time."³

Such a situation gives evidence of the like-thinking going on in these two fields in an effort to meet the personal and social needs and interests and purposes of youth. This development, in which guidance and social studies are, to say the least, complementary parts, is indicative of a need for more effort to establish efficiently organized courses of study containing most of the elements of guidance and social studies considered essential for all students.

IN RECOGNITION of the need for such reorganization, several plans have been devised and put into practice in a number of secondary schools: (1) a program with the social studies featured in the core-course; (2) a core-course with attention focused on "areas of living"; and (3) a social studies course which includes some of the guidance problems as units of study.

Certain limitations are likely to be found in each arrangement. In the first plan there may often be a neglect of some needed group-guidance elements and of individual counseling; in the second, there may not be concern for the personal problems of the students; and in the third, group-guidance is stressed but there may not be suffi-

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¹ *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1950. p. 104-105.

² Chester D. Babcock. *The Teaching of Contemporary Problems on the Twelfth Grade Level in American High Schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1949.

³ Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum*. New York: American Book Company, 1948. p. 303-307.

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cient individual counseling. However, regardless of the possible weaknesses in the plans, the principle upon which they are based appears to be sound, and administrative re-arrangements may meet some of the difficulties. For instance, Spears points out in *The Emerging High School Curriculum* that in some schools with a core curriculum "there is a pronounced tendency for the teachers of the core or basic courses . . . to assume more and more of guidance responsibilities."⁴

One implication to be drawn from this statement is *not* that a core-curriculum pattern should be installed in every school in order to meet student's needs, but that, in addition to maintaining a program which includes group-guidance activities, social studies classes may well be the most appropriate place to use one of the features of a core program, namely, to arrange for teachers to retain the same section of students for two years or more and assume the responsibility of counselors.

EXAMPLES OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

TWO of the secondary schools having programs which implement a fusion of social studies learning experiences with group and individual guidance activities are cited here to illustrate the type of action suggested as desirable for most schools whose curriculum pattern follows the separate-subjects approach.

The Abraham Lincoln High School of San Jose, California, and the Hayward (California) Union High School have attempted to provide for a meeting of the personal, social, and civic needs of their students without completely reorganizing the curriculum. Their programs are a different approach to general education, but not so different as to do away with subject courses or to replace them with an "integrative core." In both schools the social studies are retained as required courses for each year, but are revised as to content, materials, and instructional methods.

In Lincoln High the social studies classes are the centers for some of the student school-activities, such as student government and other socio-civic matters. The classes also deal with the pertinent phases of group-guidance, and the teachers act as counselors. At Hayward group-guidance features are also incorporated into the social studies courses, but the students retain the same social studies teacher during their entire stay in the school.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 124.

IN APPRAISING these programs, it can be said that both schools seem to have been more successful in directing the development of their students in those areas considered important in the light of current educational objectives than schools with the more traditionally organized programs. There are, as in any program, certain limitations. The time element in scheduling means that the length of a period cannot be extended, and an ordinary classroom period is often too short to do an adequate job of group-guidance and social studies instruction. Another problem involving time is the great amount of research and preparation required of the social studies teacher, who is also supposed to be available for counseling his charges during any non-class period. In this connection, it should be noted that the problem of obtaining qualified teachers with "The personnel point of view" is itself a formidable obstacle. But granting the presence of teachers of this caliber, in the Hayward plan there is the danger of limiting the students to an exposure to one socio-civic point of view. And, in a school system with a frequently changing faculty membership, this program obviously would not operate as planned.

On the other hand, proponents of this type of program point to many significant advantages of social studies-guidance fusion:

There is closer and constant contact between student and counselor, resulting in better understanding and better direction of students into needed learning experiences.

There is provision for student security, i.e., he "belongs" someplace, an especial need in highly departmentalized and specialized high schools.

The students become more aware of a social view-point in their education. Not only is there continual exposure to social science attitudes, but there is a great emphasis on the citizenship aspects of life.

An indirect result and one of high value is that of raising instructional standards and improving methods throughout the entire school, a development which comes from constant attention to student needs by the large group of teacher-counselors who are on the faculty.

A PLAN OF ACTION

HOW to take the initial steps toward improving any aspect of education is always a problem. Caswell suggests four steps a principal might take to stimulate in the faculty a feeling of need for guidance services. The four steps are

listed below, with the present author's comments added:⁵

1. *A clear conception of the school's function by its faculty.*

This would bring out in a more concrete way the place of the social studies in achieving the school's goals.

2. *Proper delegation of responsibility and authority for different aspects of the guidance program to various persons.*

Because of the direct relationship of the social studies to citizenship education, the civic and social guidance phases would receive major emphasis in social studies classes, and this assignment in turn should make for a more functional course of study.

3. *Definite assignment of time in the students' daily schedule for guidance.*

Whether this means an extra period, the lengthening of the homeroom period, or the incorporation of the desired activities into some of the regularly scheduled courses is a matter of individual school determination. However, a social studies class which is already largely concerned with civic and social guidance would seem to have greater possibilities for serving as a medium for directing the total development than would most other aspects of the school program.

4. *Provision of faculty time and status.*

As the curriculum begins to take on the flavor of the philosophy referred to here, it will then be

⁵ Caswell. *op. cit.* p. 250-252.

essential to provide time for the teacher to perform the guidance service and to carry on a guidance program. The social studies teacher would then become more than a person responsible for an academic field. This more dynamic position would call for fewer classes and for more conference hours.

CONCLUSION

IN THIS report the findings from a study of a number of social studies courses in a variety of secondary schools have been presented, and the elements of group-guidance which are found in social studies have been noted. It was evident that a more significant role has been allotted to the social studies in the attempt to attain the general objectives of education.

An administrative and organizational device for providing better individual guidance has also been discussed. Even though it may be said that this program has not been sufficiently tried to justify positive conclusions appropriate to all school situations, it is clear that the merits of the program warrant consideration by teachers, guidance personnel, and administrators who are interested in improving the services of schools.

Finally, a four-way approach was suggested as a means of securing more effective guidance through the social studies courses. The social studies might well become more appealing if they were re-directed to provide a larger measure of guidance for youth.

GENERALIZED EDUCATION

(Continued from page 24)

One can also turn to recordings as a way of reconstructing history. We may listen to Ed Murrow's broadcast on Friday night and hear the voices of the week. We can turn to his volumes of recordings titled "I Can Hear It Now," and hear history in the making.

There are two ways of getting sound, thoughtful, vigorous generalizing—which is what general education is. We can also get it in formal courses. I'm not critical of this kind of division, but sometimes we have presented the formal ahead of the informal, before the student can see its logic. The maturity of mind necessary to move these generalizations into a common logical core may be quite fitting for a mature learner, but not necessarily for an immature one.

Will these interstitial problem clusters of ex-

perience work? Yes, if they are well-taught, if students are guided intelligently in the making of limited numbers of key generalizations. But in solving problems that cut across subject-matter lines, there can be no neat logical set of material laid out for the student. He must, in a sense, chart his own growth and development. This is, unfortunately, so much like life itself that we tend to ignore such approaches and shift back to the less lifelike but more easily administered regular courses.

We are always expecting some miracle to solve the ills of education. There is no miraculous cure in store for us by introducing more concrete experiences through audio-visual materials. But it can help us use the only method there is for getting a general education—generalizing.

Making Use of the Community

Alan P. Mewha

ALL recent experience in social education tends to show that citizenship develops exactly in proportion to "the extent of the opportunities which our young people have for self expression, self propulsion, initiative, and practice, by participating in the affairs of life."¹ Obviously the affairs of life, for pupils as well as for teachers and other adults, exist and occur not in books but in the community round about the school. Consequently, it is often pointed out that, "If in the classroom, we can foster a knowledge of our community life and zeal for the public good, so that these will function not only beyond the classroom but throughout life, then indeed we may feel that we in turn have 'builded our lives into the city wall' (using *city* in the classical sense of being the area to which *citizenship* attaches)."² Pupils in social studies classes must first see the "city wall" before they can evaluate and react to it.

THE community in which the school is located consists of not only a collection of people but of a physio-social environment with which the people constantly interact. The record of that interaction is history; the community pattern and resource-use functions are geography; the institutions, customs, and behavior are economics, sociology, and government; and the climate of opinion, aspiration, and community standards are social psychology.³ Theoretically, the case for using this community environment as the basis of social studies teaching, especially at the secondary level, has been won. In practice, however, little has been achieved in putting the theory into general operation.

THE FIELD TRIP

THE most important device so far developed for studying *community* resources is the field trip. This varies in type from the excursion suit-

able for reconnaissance, to the field lesson designed for detailed study, and it is applicable to an exceedingly wide range of topics and subject areas. To the teacher, who has learned how to use it properly, the field trip is usually regarded as a new and wonderful teaching instrument. To the student, the field trip is not only an interesting approach to learning but is one that he usually regards as providing answers to practical questions.

If the field trip possesses these virtues and offers such a fruitful approach to learning in the social studies, why has it not been used more frequently than it has? Probably the reason most commonly advanced by teachers and administrators is that it is inconvenient. Other reasons cited include expense, time required, danger to pupils, lack of parental approval, and others.

These are all contributory factors, but, in the opinion of the writer, the major reason is the general lack of understanding on the part of teachers of how to use community resources in teaching social studies. To most teachers, it seems that the use of the environment means visits to the milk plant, the sewage disposal plant, the local Gospel Mission, a farm, or to some activity or agency of the locality which happens to illustrate the topics currently being studied in the textbook. Such visits are all too often listed in the course of study as more additional topics.

When the day comes for a field lesson, the class is usually herded into cars or into a bus; the same kind of discipline is attempted as in the classroom; the teacher either lectures to the pupils or dutifully follows the lecture of the guide. There is little more, and in many cases less, student participation in such a procedure than in a typical formal classroom situation. The chief advantage of such an excursion is just that—an excursion—something different from the dull routine of everyday classes. Where such a trip is taken frequently, the novelty wears off and it

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¹ M. Skinner, "Field Work in Civics," *Education*, 52: 517; May 1932.

² *Ibid.*, p. 518.

³ Anthropology, is ordinarily not taught at the public school level, although some of its concepts are sometimes incorporated into sociology and the other social sciences.

becomes as formal and meaningless as much classroom work. Fortunately, in most instances, such field trips are so far apart that they seldom lose their novelty. Their value as a change and relief from regular classroom procedure is unquestionably great.

The point of view expressed here, however, is that such a hit or miss, broken and intangible program as outlined above does neither the community nor the student much good. In fact with wider adoption of that kind of a program, it would mean that a few public spirited businessmen and officials would be swamped with hordes of school children until it would be necessary to shut off even that small trickle of community enlightenment.

WHAT KIND OF PROGRAM IS NEEDED?

THE community resource program which will be most effective must be much deeper and more extensive than one trip or series of trips can be. It should begin with the study of the community, with interest in its people and concern for their problems. Its results should be plans of action—and action itself wherever possible. Of one town it has been said: "We taught history for about 100 years in public schools—and yet the town's politics have been completely unaffected by the studies of history. We have taught civics for 50 years—and yet the town's government has grown steadily more ineffective. We have taught geography for 75 years—and yet the town's human geography has grown steadily worse."⁴

To remedy this situation, it is proposed that instead of studying the "what" of a community classes study the "Why" and the "What can we do about it?" This can be done by students at every grade level. Naturally the seventh-grade student cannot be expected to bring to his study the maturity of thinking of the high school senior. It would probably be best to start in the lower grades with a study of the material level of community life, "the external civilization, the things people use or have made, as well as the people themselves. This level includes the community's natural resources, the industries and service occupations, the physical setting of the community, its housing, streets, and transportation system."⁵

It is recommended that the study of the com-

munity at the institutional level be delayed until the student is in high school, although it would be impossible not to draw conclusions while making the study at the lower level. At the same time, high school seniors just beginning the study would very likely have to start at the material level.

It is with the development of an understanding of the material level of the community that the geographer is primarily interested: for it is here that the relationships of man to his natural surroundings are most apparent; it is here that the adjustments man has made to the varying natural conditions of his environment are most easily demonstrated; it is here that it can be most easily seen that man's institutions stand, not by themselves alone, but through intricate and often hidden interrelations among themselves and with the natural setting. Much of the planning must necessarily stem from this level of understanding.

USE OF MAPS AS TOOLS

SINCE recording is the first step in community study, it is therefore a prime necessity that the teacher of social studies be able to guide the students in the making and in the use of maps. "Such a varied wealth of data is presented cartographically that one may actually teach *from* maps rather than *by aid* of maps. Maps provide the basis for inferential thinking—the making of inferences from known facts—which is) difficult in connection with written or orally presented data. They help show relationships. It is impossible to envision or evaluate the results of study, field work, or reconnaissance examination without recording it on a map.⁶ This statement is that of a professional geographer whose primary interest is geographic education and whose work is chiefly in teacher education. In spite of this many will say: "Maps? They are the tool of the geographer, the brain child of the cartographer. I am not either. Maps are too intricate—it would take too long for me to learn to use them and to teach their use." Many social studies teachers knowingly or unknowingly express this fear of maps.

Maps need not be feared. Basically, they are not the complex tool of a highly skilled craftsman. Maps were used thousands of years before the invention of the drafting pen. Eskimos drew usable and astonishingly accurate maps long be-

⁴ George T. Renner, Quotation from lecture at Columbia University.

⁵ Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. p. 45.

⁶ George T. Renner, "Maps in Modern Education" *Teachers College Record*, 40: 709; May 1939.

fore the admiralty charts were in existence. Maps drawn by unlettered savages guided explorations of the Americas and other continents. Almost any child can draw a usable map of the area in which he lives or the route he follows to school.

Maps are tools and therefore must be constructed differently for each job they are called upon to perform. Maps to be used for point-to-point sailing or flying must have much greater accuracy than those to be used for a community study. The question is—for what are the maps to be used? The degree of accuracy or cartographic correctness is only a function of the use to which it is to be put. Therefore let the children draw their own maps so that they can really feel the value of maps as tools of learning rather than an end in themselves. Let them copy the essential outline from an official map of the area—that outline to be used as the base map for recording the results of the survey.

For measuring distances or areas, a cheap compass and the child's knowledge of the average length of his pace will enable him to record measurements with surprising accuracy. For large areas, the mileage indicator of an automobile can be used.

The symbols worry some teachers, but need not. They do not have to meet the standards set up by the United States Geological Survey. Symbols on a map are generally evolved from some attribute of the object to be symbolized. Thus, water on a map is usually blue, a church may be shown by a cross, a road by parallel lines, a railroad by a single line with cross-ticks. The teacher has no need to worry himself over which set of symbols to use. Let the class work out a set for its own use. That will teach the meaning of map symbols far better than by insisting that the students learn the cartographically accepted ones. Let the student use the map for the purpose for which it was designed—a tool. If allowed to make and use maps in this way, the pupil will lose his awe of them and will soon find that a map can tell much more than a printed page, and that from it he can draw valid conclusions.

WHERE TO BEGIN

IF THE town in which the schools plan to use the community as a laboratory for social studies classes is taken for an example, interest in the problems of this little town may arise from the fact that these townspeople wish to find why it is that their school system is not rated so high as the wealth of the town would make them think it should be.

Where would a group of junior high school students start such a study? It would probably start right with their own school. Some of the problems the students might want to consider would be: safety in going to and from the school; the need for more recreational facilities; equality of service to all parts of town; use of the school after school hours, etc. The study might start almost anywhere, according to the most pressing problem. In order even to begin to answer the questions raised, the situation of the school in relation to the whole community would have to be analyzed. Any one of the questions leads further into the community until the class comes to the realization that the study of the school's problems is going to become the study of the whole community and even of the story of the growth of that community.

STUDY LEADS TO PLANNING

IF WE want to know why this town grew, we will have to understand what factors of the environment were present when man first came on the scene in this region and understand the subsequent changes. We will find that many features which exist today were present then though their significance may have greatly changed. The need for a map of the natural resources of the community will be seen, as well as the need for several maps showing the various periods of development of the community—but at the same time, the student would be comparing the early periods with the later and would still be thinking in terms of present problems. The growth of one or two industries on the northwestern edge of town might not have raised a problem 25-50 years ago, but the zoning of the entire riverside as an industrial district, with multiple housing units on the east, does become significant when it is learned that the prevailing wind is from the west and that air drainage tends to form a still pool of fog over much of the town on cool fall mornings—fog and smoke making smog!

The study of the school will probably concern itself with traffic problems of the town. What will the students think when it is found that, with the present proposal of the planning board, more traffic will be funnelled into the congested center of town than was there before, creating a greater hazard? The students will also find that part of the school problem is related to the speculative buying of real estate and division of the city into home units with inadequate playing space.

(Concluded on page 33)

Advance Selection of Current Affairs

Jonathon C. McLendon

ON THE following page we have attached a list of current affairs that we believe to be most significant at the present time. The topics on the list are those receiving the greatest amount of attention by agencies of mass communication and public action. They are, and will continue to be, the topics of greatest public interest and concern. In brief, these are the problems, issues, events, and trends with which it is socially most desirable for students of social studies to become acquainted.

The list represents the results of an extensive and objective analysis of contemporary society. By using a simple, workable, and reliable technique, the teacher can ascertain at the beginning of a school year the most significant affairs of the coming months. With such a list on hand, a program of instruction in current affairs can be planned for the school year with assurance that the affairs chosen in advance will receive considerable social attention during the time the pupils are studying them.

No longer need the teacher depend upon bias, guesswork, or chance in selecting current affairs for study in social studies classes. Current events lessons may avoid haphazard, rambling, and unplanned discussion. The class may focus attention on socially significant affairs rather than burying them under a hodge-podge of ephemeral considerations. The indiscriminate inclusion in the social studies curriculum of trivia, oddities, and hokum in the guise of "current events" may properly be discarded.

The remainder of this article suggests specific ways in which such a list of current affairs may be utilized, describes the technique of selecting current affairs, and tells how the technique was evolved.

By knowing in advance the topics for reading assignments, oral reports, and other learning activities, the teacher and pupils will be

able to prepare for the lessons. The list will also aid pupils in selecting significant items from the maze of reports and interpretations confronting them in newspapers, magazines, radio programs, and other sources of news.

An advance selection of our current affairs may also be used as a guide to enriching the contents of social studies courses. A widely used means of enrichment involves current affairs as illustrations, examples, and analogies. The current affairs listed above constitute a reservoir of the most significant aspects of contemporary society from which the teacher may draw for enrichment purposes.

Advance selection merits use in curriculum and course planning. This utility recognizes the understanding of contemporary society as a major objective of instruction in social studies. Full acceptance of this objective results in a curriculum that incorporates current problems and issues. Pertinent materials are drawn from the various social sciences in order to explain contemporary social changes. An understanding of the communization of China requires a knowledge of Chinese history, the land, the people, and their institutions, as well as recent events in that nation. A study of the problem of controlling organized labor involves the utilization of facts and ideas from various social sciences, as a condensed outline illustrates:

- A. Social and economic need for regulation of labor
- B. Role of organized labor in national and world affairs
- C. Present status of labor organization in the United States
- D. History of the labor movement in the United States
- E. Government regulation of labor relations
- F. Labor and politics
- G. Unresolved issues in labor relations

Teachers of twelfth-grade problems courses are fully familiar with such an organization of materials, utilizing "background" material from various subjects as it is needed. The high motivational value and social utility of challenging, real-life problems and issues commends consideration of this organization of the social studies curriculum.

The author of this timely article is an assistant professor in the College of Education at the University of Alabama.

THE TECHNIQUE OF SELECTING CURRENT AFFAIRS

THE technique that yielded the accompanying list of current affairs was derived by simplifying and abbreviating a comprehensive technique that incorporated fourteen distinct sources of current affairs.¹ The fourteen sources included the *New York Times Index*, the index to *Facts on File*, *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, *Vertical File Service Catalog*, *Book Review Digest*, *Bulletin of the Public Affairs Information Service*, *New International Yearbook*, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *Congressional Quarterly Almanac*, platforms of three political parties, the President's annual "State of the Union" and "Budget" messages, and the federal budget.

A list of topics receiving the most attention in these sources during the year 1949 was compiled, based on 105,009 newspaper articles; 9,410 mentions in weekly news summaries; 9,110 magazine articles; 778 books; 24,265 mixed publications; 242 radio programs; 305 questions in public opinion polls; 1,781 lines in political party platforms; 333 pages in a summary of Congressional activities; 309½ lines in the President's annual "State of the Union" message; 42,200 millions of dollars of government expenditures; and 1,997½ lines in the President's annual "Budget" message.

The one hundred most treated topics in each source were considered, then the most closely related topics combined and ranked in order of amount of treatment they received. The topics treated in all sources were synthesized into a composite listing in order of the extent and intensity of mention, that is, the amount of social attention they were given.

IN ORDER to obtain a simpler, briefer, and more practicable technique, the list of topics derived from each source was compared with the composite list. The most likely available of the sources ranking high in inclusiveness and rank order of topics, in comparison with all sources, is the *Reader's Guide*. When the topics derived from the *Reader's Guide* and political party platforms are combined, they practically duplicate the composite list of topics. The social studies teacher may, therefore, easily and validly compile a list of the national current affairs receiving the greatest social attention by using only two

¹ Jonathon C. McLendon, *A Technique for Deriving a Social Studies Curriculum from Current Affairs*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Minnesota, 1951.

CURRENT AFFAIRS OF 1952

(In order of decreasing amount of social attention)

Topic	Related Problem or Issue
Foreign Policies	Will our foreign policies achieve peace?
Labor Relations	How can organized labor be controlled?
United Nations	East-West conflicts deter the United Nations
Resources: Population	Is the world short of resources?
Military	Expanding military power
Economic Conditions	Will inflation be controlled?
Peace and War	Can World War III be prevented?
Korean War	Efforts to end the Korean War
Education	Bettering our nation's schools
Minorities; Civil Rights	Extending freedom and opportunity to all
Federal Finance	Soaring costs of government
Economic System	Is free enterprise endangered?
Communication	The Age of Television
Russia	Is peace with Russia possible?
American Nations	Are we neglecting our American neighbors?
Political Systems	Does communism threaten democracy?
Europe	Union for survival?
Housing	Thwarted solutions to the housing problem
Great Britain	More crises ahead?
Trouble Spots	Danger spots around the world
Agriculture	Is agriculture over-subsidized?
Government Investigations	What is justice in government investigations?
Foreign Aid	Rearming foreign nations
War Economy	Conversion to a wartime economy

sources.² To the affairs of national scope may be added those of primarily local, state or regional concern.

² These two sources were used in compiling the list at the beginning of this article. The time period of publications covered by the *Reader's Guide* used was the first six months of the current year, a period previously ascertained to reveal approximately the same results as twelve months. Apparently the currency of magazine articles is balanced by the persistency of party platform issues (every four years), resulting in these two sources blending best.

In order to increase their teachability, the teacher may desire to convert the topics into statements of problems and issues. The process of formulating problems and issues consists of identifying and stating a basic, current, and inclusive problem or issue related to each topic. While this is a subjective or interpretive procedure, the social studies teacher, as a student of the social sciences, a constant observer of the contemporary scene, and a teacher of children, is well qualified to carry it out.

IN SUMMARY, the techniques of objectively ascertaining the currently most significant social affairs consists of (1) recording the amounts of attention devoted to the hundred most treated social topics in the *Reader's Guide* over a sizeable period of time; (2) recording the relative amounts

of attention devoted to topics treated in at least two major political party platforms; (3) combining the most closely related topics in each list, thus reducing the number of topics; (4) ranking the topics in each list according to the amount of treatment they receive; (5) combining the rank order lists, giving each source equal weight; and (6) formulating the statement of a basic, current, and inclusive problem related to each topic.

This article has presented an objective and workable technique for the selection of socially significant current affairs. By incorporating the product of this technique, the social studies curriculum may more directly and accurately reflect contemporary social changes and recent advances in social knowledge. Such a curriculum provides for a more thorough integration of current affairs and the social studies.

MAKING USE OF THE COMMUNITY

(Continued from page 30)

As soon as the student begins to study the community he will have to map what he has found out. The base map is an enlargement of the official map of the town. With a notebook in which to jot down the figures, any student can measure the significant items on a block. In class, the information is brought together on one master map. While the master map is being prepared, the class will begin to think, in larger terms, of community planning, in which the school can play an important part. The work of analyzing and making the other maps will have given rise to many new questions. On the students' plan for the city, the answers to these questions will be worked out from the students' point of view.

CLASSWORK MORE MEANINGFUL

DURING this time there will have been innumerable reports of individual students, class discussions, explanations by the teacher of some particular point, and even tests of the students' understanding of the material covered. There will be much class work in relation to the amount of field work.

By studying the community and by using the maps, the students will feel that they are having a part in solving a community problem; the community will feel that the school is not a separate "institution" but a functional part of its own organism, a contributor to its physical and moral growth.

Notes and News

Local Council Publications

Last spring and early this fall the headquarters office of the National Council for the Social Studies conducted a survey with a questionnaire of regional, state, and local social studies organizations. Among the information collected was information about publications of these groups. It is realized that the information in the NCSS office may not be complete, and some local groups with a publication may have been overlooked. Following is a list of publications compiled from this investigation. If you know of any publication that is not listed, will you help by sending to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D.C., information about such publications, and if possible a copy of the publication itself.

This list of publications is given in these columns with addresses of editors so that councils may know what others are doing. It may be that these editors would like to arrange for exchanges of publications, and councils interested in starting a publication may wish to secure copies of other council publications that would be of help in developing a new publication.

Arkansas Council for the Social Studies
Bulletin
Miss Amy Jean Greene
312 East Court House Square
Arkadelphia, Arkansas

Southern California Social Science Association
Review Bulletin
Nathan Wells
Gardena High School
Gardena, California

Connecticut Social Studies Teachers Association
Social Studies Topics
Ruth O. M. Andersen
Norwich Free Academy
Norwich, Connecticut

Pinellas County Council for the Social Studies
Pinsostuc
LeRoy Kaufman
1425 18th Avenue North
St. Petersburg, Florida

Illinois Council for the Social Studies
The Councilor
Charles B. Monroe
Chicago Teachers College
6800 Stewart Street
Chicago 21, Illinois

Iowa Council for the Social Studies
Iowa Councilor
J. R. Skretting
University High School
Iowa City, Iowa

Indiana Council for the Social Studies
Indiana Social Studies Quarterly
Robert LaFollette
Ball State Teachers College
Muncie, Indiana

Kansas Council for the Social Studies
Social Studies Notes
Marie Olson, Secretary-Treasurer
Curtis Junior High School
Topeka, Kansas

Minnesota Council for the Social Studies
The Bulletin
Naomi Fausch
2725 Kenwood Avenue
St. Louis Park, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Missouri Council for the Social Studies
The Bulletin
James Burkhart
Stephens College
Columbia, Missouri

New York State Council for the Social Studies
Citizenship Journal
Edith Starratt
Box 147
Sherburne, New York

Association of Social Studies Teachers of New York City
Bulletin
Fred Jacobson
Newtown High School
Elmhurst, New York

Long Island Council for the Social Studies
Newsletter
Dorothy Owen, Corresponding Secretary
Hempstead High School
Hempstead, New York

Greater Cleveland Council for the Social Studies
The Reporter
Clarence Killmer
Wilbur Wright Junior High School
1105 Parkhurst Drive
Cleveland 11, Ohio

Tennessee Chapter, Association of Social Science Teachers
Journal of Social Science Teachers
Mrs. Mabel Bell Crooks
Tennessee A & I State University
Nashville, Tennessee

Texas Council for the Social Studies
Bulletin
Midge Langendorff, Secretary-Treasurer
1243 Bailey Avenue
San Antonio, Texas

Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies

Wiscouncilor

Mr. Roy W. Oppegard
Junior High School
Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Middle States Council for the Social Studies

Proceedings

James Blakemore

28 Station Plaza
Great Neck, New York

New England Association of Social Studies Teachers

Bulletin

Lewis M. Wiggin

1604A Yale Station

New Haven, Connecticut

Illinois Council

The Illinois Council for the Social Studies met in Pekin on October 27. Flora Ebaugh, presided at the opening meeting which was addressed by Dr. C. Sipple, Dean of Bradley University. This was followed by five discussion groups. Group I "The Challenge of the Core Curriculum," Clarence Stegmier, Thornton Township High School, Harvey and Gladys L. Smith, University High, Southern Illinois University, co-Directors; and Seymour B. Still, Irving Junior High School, Bloomington, Recorder; Group II "The Teaching of Moral and Spiritual Values in the Social Studies," David E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois, Director; and William Gettman, Pekin Elementary Schools, Recorder; Group III "The Far East in Today's Curriculum," Bryan Heise, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Director; and Elmer Witzig, Morton Elementary Schools, Recorder. Group IV "The Place of Geography in the Social Studies," James Patzer, Pekin Community High School, Director; and Estelle Wheeler, Manual High School, Peoria, Recorder. Group V "Democratic Procedures in the Elementary Classroom," Ethel Wooley, Whittier School, Peoria, Director; and Delmar Egli, Hopedale, Recorder. James K. Felts president of the Illinois Council, presided at the luncheon which was followed by a business meeting. The afternoon general session was addressed by John McNaughton, a Pekin newspaperman, with Hazel Phillips, Argo Community High School, presiding. Bryan Heise, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, then showed colored pictures of the Far East. Paul R. Workman and Martha Stucki of Pekin Community High School served as co-chairmen of the Committee on Arrangements.

H.P. and M.M.H.

Indiana Council

The Indiana Council for the Social Studies started publication of a Newsletter in October as an interim publication while Robert LaFollette, editor of the *Indiana Social Studies Quarterly*, is in Germany. The Council met in Indianapolis on October 25 for a luncheon meeting. Ed Gallagher, Indianapolis attorney, spoke to the group on "The Crisis of State Government in the Field of Mental Health." Officers of the Indiana Council are: president, Emma Bertha, Gary; vice president, Dorothea Kirk, Indianapolis; secretary, Marjorie Gilkey, Franklin; treasurer, Eugene Oliver, Bloomington; public relations, Ethel M. Ray, Terre Haute; Inter-social Science Council, Meribah Clark, Terre Haute. E.M.R.

Minneapolis Council

The Minneapolis Council for the Social Studies has just been organized. At their meeting on November 9, Colonel H. Edmund Bullis, Executive Director, Delaware State Society for Mental Health, was the speaker. Additional meetings planned for this are for January, a panel discussion on "What Does the Community Expect from Social Studies?" March, a panel discussion on "What's New in the Old Problems of Social Studies"; and May, business meeting with election of officers and a guest speaker. Officers of the new council are: president, Kopple Friedman; vice-president, Marjorie Spaulding; recording secretary, Agnes O'Connor; corresponding secretary, Irma Brewster; and treasurer, George McDonough. A.O.C.

Sabine Council for the Social Studies

Another newly organized group is the Sabine Council for the Social Studies, located in Beaumont, Texas. The officers for 1951-52 are: president, Anna Marie duPerier; vice-president, Mrs. Sidney Pietzsch; and secretary-treasurer, Mrs. Edith Conklin. This group plans to hold four meetings and has a charter membership of fifty-six. A.M.duP.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in materials for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your organization or school and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Hazel Phillips, Minnie M. Hatten, Ethel M. Ray, Agnes O'Connor, Anna Marie duPerier.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph A. Brown

The U.S. and the World

Teachers complain, and rightly so, that most of the publications of our State Department are too difficult and too drab for effective use in the classroom. Yet the fact remains that today, more than ever before in our history, it is imperative that our citizens know about our foreign policy, our world commitments, our world problems.

The answer would seem to be that social studies teachers, at least at the secondary school level, MUST introduce their students to both the information and the literature itself. This calls for teacher effort—the pamphlets must often be read and selections made for student use; more capable students must be led directly to certain publications and held responsible for their mastery; a greater effort must be made to arouse interest in the problems of foreign policy and to create a desire for more information in that area.

Week by week and month by month our State Department issues materials that cannot be duplicated in any other source. We may wish that they would be more alert to the reading capacity of the American people and stop writing for the upper 5 percent. Until they pay attention to our complaints we must make the best of a bad situation; under any conditions we owe it to the nation to introduce our students to such materials as the following, all of which can be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

The Department of State Today. Illustrated. 33 p.; 15 cents.

The Kremlin Speaks. Department of State Publications 4264. 37 p.; 15 cents. Contains excerpts from statements made by the Leaders of the Soviet Union on world affairs, Soviet plans, Soviet techniques, Soviet ethics, individual freedom and international cooperation.

Point Four Pioneers. Department of State Publications 4279. 37 p.; 20 cents. Contains material on the work of Frank Pinder in Liberia, Albion W. Patterson in Paraguay, and Horace Holmes in India.

In Quest of Peace and Security. Folio size. Department of State Publication 4245. 120 p.; 55 cents. Contains nearly 60 selected documents on American Foreign Policy between 1941 and 1951, ranging from the Atlantic Charter to a resolution of the General Assembly in November, 1950. Material such as this can be especially valuable in schools with restricted library facilities.

Useful Bibliographies

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace at 405 W. 117 St., New York 27, has issued a very useful bibliography which all teachers working with Modern Problems or with World history will wish to possess. Prepared by Margaret Cormack it is titled *Selected Pamphlets on the United Nations and International Relations; An Annotated Guide*. 33 p.; 25 cents.

The following bibliographies may be purchased by writing to Dr. Leonard S. Kenworthy, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn 10, New York.

Asia in the Social Studies Curriculum. 44 p.; 50 cents. Contains an 18-page essay on "Asia in the Social Studies Curriculum," separate bibliographies for elementary and junior-senior high, addresses of publishers and of producers of visual aids, and lists of films and filmstrips on Asia.

Developing World-Minded Children; Resources for Elementary School Teachers. 36 p.; 30 cents. Bibliographies and suggestions under 39 headings.

Africa

The September, 1951 issue of *International Conciliation* (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117 St., New York 27. 75 cents per year) is a 60-page booklet containing John R. E. Carr-Gregg's "Self-Rule in Africa: Recent Advances in the Gold Coast." The author discusses The Growth of National Consciousness, Stages of Constitutional Advance, The Elections, and A Plan for the Years Ahead.

The most recent Public Affairs Pamphlet (22 East 38 St., New York 16. 25 cents) is Alan Paton's *South Africa Today*. The author, a distinguished South African author and social scientist, warns of the serious and possibly tragic consequences of the rising racial and political tensions in South Africa. He writes that "Except for the conflict between the Soviet Union under its Marxian leaders and freedom-loving peoples, there is no world problem more difficult and more potentially explosive than that involving the non-European population in the Union of South Africa."

Miscellaneous Pamphlets

The October issue of *Social Action* (289 Fourth Ave., New York 10. \$1.50 per year) is devoted to the topic "The Christian Faith and Our World."

The University of Chicago Round Table, Chicago 37, has recently issued No. 706 of its bulletins. The topic is "The British Election," and it contains excerpts from the election manifestos of both Labor and Conservative parties. (10 cents.)

The National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N.W., Washington 6, has recently reissued Beardsley Ruml and Theodore Geiger's *The Five Percent*. 40 p.; 50 cents. The authors explain how the Revenue Act of 1951 affects the five percent of net earnings before taxes which corporations can spend for educational, scientific, and welfare purposes. They stress—as they did in the earlier edition—the advantages which business can derive from sound expenditure of the five percent on projects of mutual benefit to themselves and to the community.

From the last mentioned organization comes a pamphlet that is of interest to those dealing with problems of labor—*Causes of Industrial Peace Under Collective Bargaining*. 93 p.; \$1.00. Case Studies #9—the Minnequa Plant of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Corporation and Two Locals of United Steelworkers of America.

Material on Agriculture and Conservation

American Forest Products Industries. Write to Alma Deane Fuller, Director, Education Division, 1319 18th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

School Bibliography; Our Forests . . . Their Use and Conservation. 16 p.; free.

The Story of Pulp and Paper. 16 p.; free.

The Story of Lumber and Allied Products. 16 p.; free.

The Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th St., New York 16.

Industry and Agriculture in Eastern Europe—Agriculture. By Samuel L. Sharp and Laure Metzger. In *Foreign Policy Reports*, Vol. 26-2. April 1, 1949. 10 p.; 25 cents.

Man and Food: the Lost Equation? By Lester C. Walker and Blair Bolles. *Headline Series*, No. 73. January, 1949. 64 p.; 35 cents.

Izaak Walton League of America. Write to The Librarian, 31 North State St., Chicago 2, Ill.

Conservation in the Schools. 15 cents. Suggested ways and means by which administrators, supervisors, and teach-

ers can introduce the teaching of conservation into their schools: preliminary procedures, use of the curriculum, and instructional materials.

Proposal for Formulating National Policies. 10 cents.

Report of the National Committee on Policies in Conservation Education. 10 cents. Outlines the scope, guiding principles, and ultimate objectives of conservation education, and sets forth a program indicating what is to be done, who is responsible, and how the work is to be accomplished.

Report of the Workshop Conference, June 14-17, 1948. 12 cents. Fifteen recommendations on conservation education, with reference to responsibilities of the citizen, the curriculum, teacher training, and instructional materials.

Some Selected References on Conservation for Pupils and Teachers. Revised in 1949. 5 cents. A list of book references grouped for use on elementary, intermediate, and high-school levels.

The Goal of the National Committee on Policies in Conservation Education. 1949. 5 cents.

Training Teachers for Conservation Education. 15 cents. Deals with four problems: How an action program can be developed in a local community, the functions of state or regional workshops for teachers, what can be done about more and better pre-service training, and standards for evaluating published conservation materials.

National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th St., New York 20.

Our Land . . . Our Spirit. 16 p.; 4 cents.

Oxford Book Company, 222 Fourth Ave., New York 3.

Conserving Our Resources. By W. Crosby Steele. No. 5 of the Oxford Social Studies Pamphlets. 60 p.; 30 cents.

Social Action, 289 Fourth Ave., New York 10.

Land Tenure—Reform and the Churches. 34 p.; 15 cents. Contains Shirley E. Greene's "Land Tenure Reform and the Churches," and Joseph Ackerman's "Land Reform—Hope of Democracy."

U. S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Washington 25, D.C.

Forest Service Films Available on Loan for Educational Purposes. Well annotated. 12 p.; free.

Materials to Help Teach Forest Conservation. 4 p.; free.

U. S. Department of State, Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, Washington 25, D.C.

American Agriculture and World Trade. Department of State Publication 4252. 12 p.; free.

U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.

Our Forests: What They Are and What They Mean to Us. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication 162. 38 p.; 15 cents. Discusses what the forest is, Forest regions of the U. S., How our forests serve us, Enemies of the forest, and Forestry in the U. S.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Horace Mann. 20 minutes; black-and-white; sale, \$85. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Teachers of American history have in recent years stressed the fact that the growth of our educational system has been one of our great cultural accomplishments, and that the leaders in this movement deserve mention along with leaders in such fields as military history, statesmanship, invention and similar fields. Lack of suitable material has made it difficult to dramatize this phase of our country's history, with the result that students have had difficulty in comprehending the important contribution made by such leaders as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. This film helps to present a picture of the romance inherent in the struggle for a free public school system.

The story of the schools of the early nineteenth century and their pitiful plight is presented through scenes of Horace Mann's own school days. Privileged to attend school only ten weeks out of the year, he finds the instruction to be poor and the school buildings poorer. At 20 Mann attends Brown University and determines to do his bit in the cause of better education. He graduates a valedictorian of his class, teaches a while at Brown, but then turns to the law because he believes that in this profession he can "convince the people that count" of the value of education.

Elected to the Massachusetts Senate, Horace Mann works for asylums for the insane, helps to design an index for the state laws, and keeps alive an interest in better schools. He points to the poor buildings, inadequate teachers, ill-designed textbooks, and insufficient public support. Attending a meeting of politicians and educators, Mann listens to a review of the arguments for and against public education and becomes more than ever convinced that "Every man no matter how low his birth or slim his pocketbook should be taught to use his brain." At 41 he gives up his law practice to become Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. In this position he becomes known as the missionary of public edu-

cation. He urges and sees passed legislation for public support of schools and for better teacher education. In 1843 he marries Mary Peabody and honeymoon in Europe where he has an opportunity to observe European education.

The controversy over the publication of his 7th annual report is briefly treated. The latter part of the film deals with Mann's anti-slavery crusade as a member of congress and with his career as president of Antioch college. It ends with his commencement speech in which he says, "Be ashamed to die before you have won some victory for humanity."

Mann's career dealt with ideas rather than with deeds, so it is difficult to picture his contributions to his country. One wishes that the film had shown more scenes contrasting existing schools with those that Mann succeeded in establishing. The whole matter of the Prussian influence on Mann's philosophy is barely hinted at. Despite these shortcomings the film does present Mann as a fighter who strove to do something about a very real problem in our country's growth. His forthright statements concerning the value of education in a democracy and the steps he took to vitalize the educative process are well worth presenting to junior and senior high school students.

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Alien Orders. 17 minutes; rental \$1.50. How Britain and Malaya are waging war against alien communist bandits.

Will Europe Unite? 20 minutes; rental \$2.50. The need for free European governments to unite as a geographic and economic whole.

Struggle for Oil. 20 minutes; rental \$2.50. History of the rise of the present conflict in Iran.

Mother of Parliaments. 10 minutes; rental \$1.50. The reopening of the bombed House of Commons. Speeches by King George, Clement Attlee, and Winston Churchill.

This is Britain—Health. 9 minutes; rental \$1.50. Various aspects of health, both mental and physical, are shown in brief episodes.

C I O Film Division, 718 Jackson Pk., N. W., Washington 6, D.C.

Fate of a Child. 10 minutes; rental \$3.00. This picture deals with some of the major problems facing the underdeveloped areas of Latin America and the attempts of the

U.N. Economic Commission for Latin America to do something about it.

Cornell Film Co., 1501 Broadway, New York 18.

Old MacDonald's Farm. 10 minutes; color or black-and-white; Sale—apply. Bobby and Sally visit a farm and play with the animals.

Let's Take a Trip. 10 minutes; color or black-and-white; Sale—apply. Tommy looks at maps and pictures and then goes on a trip to interesting parts of the United States.

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.

Are You Ready for Service? A series of 14 one-reel films. Apply for sale or rental rates. Group I, "What It's All About," "Your Plans," "Service and Citizenship." Group II, "Starting Now!" "Getting Ready Morally," "Getting Ready Emotionally," "Getting Ready Physically." Group III, "The Nation to Defend," "What Are the Military Services?" "When You Enter Service," "Military Life and You." Group IV, "Communism," "Why You?" "Your Investment in the Future."

Right or Wrong? 10 minutes; black-and-white; sale \$50; color; sale \$100. A boy finds himself in a gang throwing stones at warehouse windows. In the scenes which follow a number of situations are presented concerning the making of moral decisions. It is an "open-ended" film which leaves it up to the viewer to decide what action would be right or wrong in the situation.

Film Library, Ford Motor Co., 445 Park Ave., New York 22.

Driver Education Films. Series of 6 ten-minute films; free. "Parking the Car," "Driving in the City," "Driving on the Highway," "Driving Under Adverse Conditions," "Driving at Night," "Care of the Car."

NEA Division of Press and Radio Relations, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Secure the Blessings. 27 minutes; sale \$55. How American school children learn the ways of liberty which they must practice to keep America free.

United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.

The Seasons. 10 minutes; sale \$50. The revolution of the earth around the sun and its effect upon the seasons is shown in animation.

Great Winds. 10 minutes; sale \$50. The principal pressure areas on the earth and the general circulation is explained.

Earth and the Sun's Rays. 5 minutes; sale \$35. The basic concepts of insulation are explained.

The Growth of London. 23 minutes; sale \$125. Presents an historical overview of the principal events and developments which shaped London and also the British Empire. Actual scenes, models and diagrams reconstruct the history of the city.

Young America Films, 18 East 41 St., New York 17.

Anthony and Cleopatra. 30 minutes; sale \$117.50. A Shakesperian film of considerable interest for social studies classes.

Julius Caesar. 30 minutes; sale \$117.50. A faithful condensation of Shakespeare's play.

Motion Picture News

The H. W. Wilson Co., 950-972 University Ave., New York 52, issues the *Educational Film*

Guide, a list of approximately 10,000 16-mm. films. An alphabetical title and subject section serves as an index to the classified section which contains full descriptions of the films, tells whether they are silent or sound, gives running time and the name of the producer or authorized distributor, sale or rental price, as well as a description of the contents of each film. Films are graded for elementary, junior, or senior high school and college. Thousands of free films are included. The charge of \$5.00 includes the 1951 cumulative volume and quarterly issues for November, February and May.

A new catalog of "U. S. Government Films for School and Industry" will be sent upon request from United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.

Edgar Dale and John Morrison have prepared a bibliography entitled *Motion Picture Discrimination* which is designed to show how the study of motion pictures can help children in the wise choice of the best that is available. The bibliography costs 50¢ from the University Press, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio.

Film Incorporated, 330 West 42nd St., New York 18, will mail upon request a copy of their 25th Anniversary Catalog of 16-mm. feature films. Included for the first time are a number of historical films produced by Warner Brothers and now available for school showings. Films of the caliber of *Moby Dick*, *The Life of Emil Zola*, *The Story of Louis Pasteur*, *Twelve O'Clock High*, *Broken Arrow*, and *The Black Rose* will be welcome additions to school programs.

United World Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, is now distributing its catalog of "instructional Films." A free copy of a teaching guide for one of "The Earth and Its Peoples" films will be sent with the catalog.

Filmstrips

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Century of Progress—Navigation. 20 frames; sale \$3. Shows how charts, instruments and other aids to navigation have been improved since the mid-19th century.

Heritage Filmstrips, 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park 74, New York.

Backgrounds of Our Freedoms. Set of 3 filmstrips; sale \$9. "The Triumph of Parliament," 41 frames; \$3. Tells the story of the "Civil War" or British Revolution of the years 1640 to 1689. Gives the causes of the upheaval, the triumph of Cromwell, and the democratic achievements of the struggle. "Causes of the French Revolution," 34 frames; \$3. Gives the background for the Revolution and tells of the steps leading to the storming of the Bastille.

"The French Revolution," 44 frames; \$3. The story of the Bastille, drawing up a constitution, death of the old nobility, comparison of the French and American Revolution.

New York Times, Office of Educational Activities, Times Square, New York 18.

How Strong Is Russia? The September, 1951 strip in the monthly series issued by the *New York Times* as its "Report on the News."

Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 W. Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14.

The Story of Egypt. Set of 5 filmstrips; sale \$16.25. "Life in Ancient Egypt," "Egyptian Arts," "The Egyptian Mummy," "Egypt in the Time of the Exodus," "The Pyramids of Egypt."

Conservation for Beginners. Set of 6 filmstrips in color; sale \$28.50. "Sonny Squirrel and the Pine Trees," "The Deer and the Haystacks," "A Picnic for Dick and His Friends," "The Lamb and the Bluebells," "Susan and the Forest Fire," "The Muddy Raindrops."

Land and Peoples of Europe. Set of 5 filmstrips in color; sale \$22.50. "France," "Italy," "Ireland," "Spain," "Switzerland."

Major Cities of the United States. Set of 5 filmstrips; sale \$13.50. "Major Cities of Western United States," "Middle West," "South," "Eastern United States," "Washington, D.C."

National Parks of the United States. Set of 4 filmstrips in color; sale \$18.50. "National Parks of the Southwest," "National Parks of the Northwest," "Yellowstone National Park," "National Parks and Monuments of the Eastern United States."

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17

Great Explorer Series. Set of 6 color filmstrips; sale \$30. "Marco Polo," "Cortez," "Marquette," "Magellan," "Cabot," "Lewis and Clark."

Phonograph Records

A new *Annotated List of Phonograph Records*, designed to aid teachers in the solution and purchase of phonograph records has just been published by the Children's Reading Service, 106 Beekman St., New York 38. This organization has set up a central ordering service whereby any record, whether or not it is listed in the catalog, can be obtained at the best possible educational discount. The annotated list includes a special section on records designed to enrich the social studies and they are listed according to recommended grade level suitability.

A new departure in educational recording has been announced by Audio Classroom Services, 323 S. Franklin St., Chicago 6. Structured to stimulate student thought this organization has produced two, 12-inch, long-playing records (33 1/3 r.p.m.) consisting of 8 separate productions, each lasting for about 8 minutes. In dramatic fashion each of the following episodes from American History is brought to life: "The Indentured

Servant," "Electing Jefferson, 1800," "The Louisiana Purchase," "The Monroe Doctrine," "Freedom and Freedmen," "What Was The West?" "Battle Over the Philippines," "The League: Wilson Versus Lodge." These presentations are brilliantly done with just enough detail to arouse interest and brief enough to keep substantial interest alive. The records cost \$12.50 for the 4 sides containing the 8 episodes.

The Allpark Educational Records Inc., 120 Nyc Ave., Pelham, N.Y., distributes a number of educational records prepared by Helen Parkhurst, well-known educator. These records are largely of the interview type in which Miss Parkhurst talks with children and adults about pressing problems. Of special interest are the sociological records on such topics as Crime, Delinquency, Displaced Children, Farm Boy, Gangs, How It Feels to Be Poor, Prejudice, The Jewish Child Speaks, The World of the Blind Child. The records are available on long-playing, 12-inch discs, running one-half hour each. They sell for \$5 per record.

National Forum Inc., 407 S. Dearborn St., Chicago 5, Ill., has developed a series of books and charts on personal development. Of special interest are the large, 20 by 26 1/2 inch, colorful charts. They are graphically designed to stimulate group discussion. They let students see that others have problems similar to their own. Each set of shorts is made up in an easel with 33 shorts to the set. The charts sell at \$21 per set and are available on the following topics: "About Growing Up," "Being Teen-Agers," "High School Life," "Discovering Myself," "Planning My Future," and "Toward Adult Living." These guidance materials are designed for use throughout the six years of junior-senior high school. The topics dealing with each area of guidance are not confined to any one section or year, since this is not the way students grow up. They do not make all their educational adjustments in one year. Rather, they mature a little in each year. Therefore, the material flows through the six years of junior and senior high school.

It's Free

General Motors, Department of Public Relations, Room 11-170-2, Detroit 2, Michigan, offers reprints of an advertisement on the introduction of the kerosene lamp, and its contribution to the development of automotive power.

An educational kit containing free teaching aids on bituminous coal is offered at no charge

by the Bituminous Coal Institute, Educational Dept., Southern Building, Washington 5, D.C. Included in the kit is a coal map of the United States.

Three large classroom posters tracing photographically the steps from production through processing and manufacturing of products derived from cotton and cottonseed may be obtained free from the National Cotton Council, P. O. Box 76, Memphis, Tennessee.

The Scott Foresman Co., 114 East 23rd St., New York 10, will send interested teachers a copy of a new bulletin-board chart entitled "How Can We Help Conserve Nature's Wealth?" This chart shows activities that any school can carry on to stimulate interest in conservation.

Write to Miss Jean Bargos, Educational Service, *Life*, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, for reprints of the pictures from *Life* magazine now appearing in advertisements entitled "What's in a Picture?" Along with the pictures come suggestions for speeches, debates, theme-writing and vocabulary-building.

The Pan-American Coffee Bureau, 120 Wall St., New York 5, will send free a 27 by 41-inch wall chart in full color showing the principal commodities exchanged between North and Latin America. A Student manual, "The Two-Way Street Between the Americas," accompanies the chart.

A kit of material on the Motor-Vehicle Industry is free for the asking from Bureau of Educational Services, Byron G. Moon Co., 401 Broadway, New York. The kit includes 6 wall charts, each 22 by 34 inches in size, a manual for teachers and leaflets for students.

A brochure on "Opaque Projection Practices" is published by the Charles Beseler Co., 60 Badger Ave., Newark 8, N.J. Many practical suggestions are contained in this free publication.

Helpful Articles

Adams, Mildred. "Take a Trip to See Your County Government in Action." *The Instructor* LXI: 39, 76; November 1951. A seventh grade field trip to county affairs.

Brink, William, and Jamrich, John. "Teaching Materials." *Review of Educational Research* XXXI: 209-219; June 1951. Reviews recent experiments with audio-visual and other materials.

Daniels, Elva S. "News About Recordings," *The Instructor* LXI: 24, 71; November 1951. Music records which supplement phases of work in the social studies.

Hansen, Helge E. "How Practical Is Television for the Average School?" *The Nation's Schools* XLVIII: 78, 80, 82; November 1951. "It must not displace good teaching; it must not lockstep teaching procedures; it must not reduce the degree of pupil-teacher planning and it must not prevent genuine classroom experiences."

Lawson, Charlotte, and Clark, Elizabeth. "Specifications of Visual Materials in a Fifth Grade." *Journal of Geography* L: 277-284; October 1951. Gives characteristics of material used, lists the materials and indicates how they were used.

Long, Madeline S. "Video School, Minneapolis." *Audio-Visual Guide* XVIII: 5-6; October 1951. How Minneapolis met a janitor's strike with a television school of the air.

Stedler, Dick. "Education and Television Team Up in Buffalo." *The School Executive*: 54-56; November 1951. "The series (of programs) was conceived to demonstrate the various scopes of the various divisions of the school program and their aims and functions."

Thomas, R. Murray. "Teacher With a Camera." *Journal of Education* CXXXIV: 180-188; October 1951. A number of examples of how teachers use the camera as a teaching tool.

Tyrrell, William G. "Seeing and Hearing History." *American Heritage* III: 64-66; Fall 1951. A review of recent books, records, films and slides on American History.

Wallace, Virginia. "Audio-Visual Aids for a Survey Course in British Literature." *College English* XIII: 19-28; October 1951. This list will be found to be of value to teachers of World History.

Wiley, Alexander. "Congress, the People, and Educational Films." *Educational Screen* XXX: 312-313, 328; October 1951. The senator from Wisconsin explains how he prepared a film called *America in Crisis*, in which he reports to the people of Wisconsin.

Book Reviews

FROM VERSAILLES TO THE NEW DEAL. By Harold U. Faulkner. 1950. 388p. THE ERA OF FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT. By Denis W. Brogan. 1950. 382p. THE STRUGGLE FOR SURVIVAL. By Eliot Janeway. 1951. 382p. WAR FOR THE WORLD. By Fletcher Pratt. 1950. 364p. THE UNITED STATES IN A CHAOTIC WORLD. By Allan Nevins. 1950. 252p. THE NEW DEAL AND WORLD AFFAIRS. By Allan Nevins. 332p. New Haven: Yale University Press. \$5.00 each, bookstore edition, and \$2.50 each, textbook edition.

The addition of five volumes in the fall of 1950 and a sixth in the past November continues the distinguished series, *The Chronicles of America*, to the conclusion of World War II. Under the editorship of Allan Nevins, these new volumes give a lively and forceful account of United States history in the years between the two World Wars.

The treatment devoted to this quarter century is more detailed than that of any other period of history in the first fifty volumes. Unlike most of the other volumes, these have been written from a much closer historical perspective. The same general features of the earlier volumes have been preserved in these recent additions. The material is written with authority by a leading scholar of the subject. There is the characteristic detailed emphasis on political and economic history with some concern for social change but no attention to cultural or intellectual developments. The bibliographies list source materials, but the descriptions of the secondary literature are brief and informative evaluations. But above all, the quality of clear-cut and straightforward readability will make these volumes every bit as useful and popular as the preceding ones.

Harold Faulkner's *From Versailles to the New Deal* is a sweeping survey of domestic developments in the 1920's. With only a few exceptions, it reiterates the indictments that have been aimed against the political shortcomings and economic fallacies of the decade. The analysis of government-business relations and the conditions of workers on farm and in factory are compact and lucid.

Writing as a distinguished British scholar and journalist, Denis Brogan's study of *The Era of Franklin D. Roosevelt* combines the best features of both professions. He immerses himself in the

discussion with familiarity and writes with sprightliness as well as soundness. Brogan's evaluations of such controversial subjects as New Deal monetary, labor, agricultural, relief, and housing policies and TVA and the other alphabetical agencies are among the most penetrating of the entire series.

The "chronicle of economic mobilization in World War II," by Eliot Janeway, is the 53rd of the volumes, but the last to make its appearance. In some ways, it is the least satisfactory of the recent six; yet in other respects, it must be considered of the greatest significance. Any study of the transition from a peace- to a war-time economy is complex. But in Janeway's treatment it is made involved and confused. His discussion of economic policies is entangled with political maneuvers, and the interpretation of the political personalities and their aspirations is from a far more subjective point of view than is found in the rest of the series. Nevertheless, *The Struggle for Survival* should be firmly implanted as a warning beacon. Here is a record of an earlier mobilization that could be used as a profitable sentinel against repeating many errors in the present readjustment of the economy.

Fletcher Pratt, who established his reputation as a naval historian, enhances it in *War for the World*. He does not, however, provide a comprehensive narrative of World War II. The Pacific campaigns overshadow those of the African-European Theater, and the sea-fighting receives more attention than land- or air-warfare. For a vivid and understandable account of command strategy, Pratt's chronicle is an invaluable, if incomplete, one.

In Allan Nevins's final volumes, the history takes on a world-wide picture as American interests, contacts, and activities are expanded in this period. There is a new interpretation of the "isolationism" of the twenties and new estimations of the Roosevelt "internationalism"; the latter is written largely in the light of recent events.

These six volumes belong on the shelves with the other fifty. Even without the preceding *Chronicles*, these succinct and effective treatments of recent political, economic, and international history will be practical references for teachers and their students in American history or con-

temporary problems. It is unfortunate that a publisher with such a series to its credit as the impressive compilation of pictorial history in *The Pageant of America* could not have included more lively and revealing illustrations than those selected for these volumes.

WILLIAM G. TYRRELL

Div. of Archives and History
N.Y. State Dept. of Education

THE UNITED NATIONS IN ACTION. By Eugene P. Chase. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950. xii + 394 p. \$4.50.

The background for an intelligent understanding of the United Nations today is well presented in Professor Chase's new book. He has drawn on his own knowledge of international relations and his experience at the San Francisco conference to present in book form one of the first all-around accounts of the origin, structure and activities of the United Nations and its specialized and related agencies.¹ The book itself was completed before the invasion of South Korea but he has given in his preface an outline of the steps taken

¹The interested teacher will find other works concerned with the UN. Professor Chase's book has the advantage of gathering in one place the answers to most of the general questions of interest to the social studies teacher. Following are other sources the teacher can consult: L. M. Goodrich and E. Hambro, *The Charter of the United Nations* (2d ed., Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1949) is a highly technical and legal explanation of specific Charter provisions of more use to the specialist than to the general reader. P. B. Potter, *International Organization* (5th ed., New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948) and C. Eagleton, *International Government* (rev. ed., New York: Ronald, 1948) are general texts on international organization, with many pages devoted to the UN. S. Arne, *United Nations Primer* (rev. ed., New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1948) discusses international events from the Atlantic Charter to the San Francisco Conference). The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York 27, New York, has issued a booklet called *The United Nations—Its Record and Its Prospects* (New York, 1950). And the American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65th Street, New York 21, New York, has periodically issued booklets used in its annual high school contest, the most recent of which are *We, The People*, *The UN Story*, and *The United Nations—Action for Peace*. The last four booklets named are suitable for use by secondary school students. The most useful periodical devoted to the UN is *The United Nations Bulletin*. This official semi-monthly publication of the UN gives a general account of the regular activities of all UN agencies. It is available through International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

by the United Nations immediately following that crisis.

To both the general reader and the teacher the book is useful because it presents so much of the material needed in order to consider and evaluate the United Nations as it stands today. It should be remembered, for example—and it usually isn't—that the organization was not designed to enforce the settlement of disputes between the Big Five; it was assumed (or at least hoped) by the drafters of the Charter that the unity of wartime alliance would extend to the settlement of postwar problems. At the same time the *consultative* function of the United Nations sometimes will settle or postpone a Great Power issue. At least we can draw this conclusion from the settlement of the Berlin blockade.

It is too early to say whether the United Nations has passed its first great test. A first impression might be that the invasion of South Korea was the test, and the Security Council's actions which followed so quickly showed that the nations of the world, having well learned the lessons of Munich, helped the organization pass that test successfully. But the action taken last summer by so many nations might also be described as a victory for collective security rather than for the United Nations itself. It was the absence of the U.S.S.R. from the Security Council which made it possible for the collective security policies to be institutionalized by and through the organization. This interpretation does not deny the validity of the Security Council's action. Former practice in the Council, acquiesced in by the U.S.S.R., had developed the doctrine that abstention from voting did not constitute a veto. If the events of June and July, 1950, could not furnish a test of the United Nations itself, they certainly could, and did, result in something equally, if not more, desirable—substantial international approval of and participation in institutionalized collective security.

Professor Chase is mildly optimistic regarding the future of the United Nations. Like so many other political organizations, its success will depend greatly on the attitudes of its members. The social studies teacher should find the book helpful in his preparation of American citizens for international responsibilities.

FREDERIC A. WEED

Northern Illinois State Teachers College
DeKalb, Illinois

Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers

by Edwin R. Carr

A carefully selected and annotated list of readings and references for social studies teachers. About 500 books and 50 magazines are annotated. The lists are grouped, covering each discipline in the social sciences and the field of social studies education. A valuable guide for teachers and librarians. Every social studies teacher should have a copy in his professional library for ready reference. Published July 1951. Price \$1.25

Social Studies for Young Adolescents

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Julian C. Aldrich, *editor*

This is number six in the Curriculum Series of the National Council for the Social Studies. Identifies major problems and trends in the junior high school grades; reports description of practices from a number of school systems; and offers a variety of suggestions, including different methods of approach, for the curriculum of grades seven, eight, and nine. A helpful publication for teachers and supervisors that will aid them in working with the difficult problems of these grade levels. Published October 1951. Price \$1.50

National Council for the Social Studies

1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

LIVING IN OUR AMERICA, A RECORD OF OUR COUNTRY. By I. James Quillen and Edward Krug. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1951. 752p. \$3.32.

"We have the goals of liberty, equality, justice, and the pursuit of happiness. . . . Our ideas of the best ways to reach these goals and of the best methods to keep these rights have changed and are changing" (page 703). Such a statement of purpose well fits this attractive, double-columned, 752-page American history text for upper elementary grades.

There is a colorful thirty-two page introduction. Full color global perspective maps, folklore maps, American life cartoons, and selected pictorials are eye-catching. "A good history must tell . . . about the land which makes up a country and a great deal about the people who have lived on that land" (page 7). Interspersed in the text are 64 additional maps, innumerable illustrations, pictographs and small cartoons.

The twenty-two chapters are conveniently divided into eight chronologically progressive units. Four units antedate and include the "War Between the States," and four units postdate this crisis. This approximates a 50 percent content division. There are two to four chapters in each unit. Unit titles are: "The Beginnings," "The Fight for Freedom," "The New Nation," "Confirming the Union," "Inventions Help Unite the Nation," "Promoting the General Welfare," "Home Problems and World Responsibilities," and "Facing the Future."

Innumerable documentary excerpts are given. Their length varies from several paragraphs to several columns. They consist of contemporary documents, dialogues, lyrics, and poems. The index italicizes these excerpts. This is a most welcome pattern for American history appreciation at the upper elementary level. The student is stimulated to "compare further," "look longer," and "look deeper," in the many well catalogued books listed with thumbnail content sentences at the end of each chapter. He is stimulated to activate himself as an individual or as a member of a group in the suggested aids to learning by writing, by drawing or making things, by dramatics and speaking, and by preparing charts, time lines, contemporary follow-up clippings, etc. At the end of each chapter there is listed a generous sampling of audio-visual aids in films and recordings.

The problem-approach procedure is generously repeated with the aim to habituate the scientific approach to all problem solving. The text has well balanced argumentative approaches to the

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Buck. (8Vo.) 641 pp. 1949 \$3.50

Eppse, Merl R. & Foster, A. P.: "An Elementary American History with Contributions of the Negro Race" Same as above, but more simplified. For use in elementary schools.

Buck. (8Vo.) 410 pp. 1949 \$2.50

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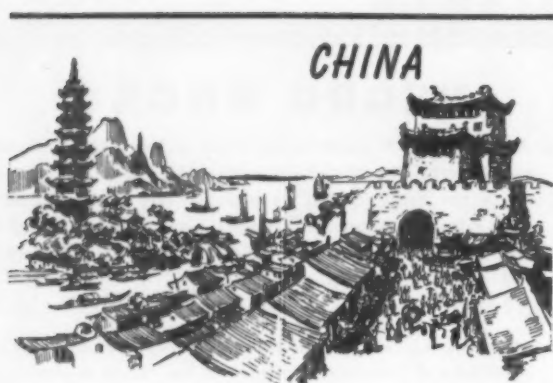
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various past or contemporary historical problems. "We see that the American people have always had problems. Some of them have been solved for us, some of them have been left for us to solve, and perhaps we will have to pass on some of the problems for future citizens to work on" (page 709).

In considering the numerous wars of the United States, a deliberate effort appears to be made to develop not so much the events, but the causes, the results, and the kind of peace. Chapter 21 is devoted to "Our American Neighbors." World War II is well reviewed in Chapter 20. There appears to be an increased emphasis on United States foreign relations, yet the accomplishments of the attempts toward organized world government are skimmed over. A more careful topical weighting, including more on "Our American Neighbors" and more on the development of world government integration would be welcome.

In defense of the text, however, its many sterling qualities far out-weigh such topical shortness. The type is large and clear. Language and style are considerate of the reader age-level. Sample passages checked by the Lorge formula showed the readability level between the sixth- and



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eighth-grade level. The book is well bound, the paper is of good reflective quality, and it is quite durable. Several pupils selected to give reviews thoroughly enjoyed the contents. They liked its readability, attractiveness, and the special aids to learning. The text as a whole is conducive to the general purpose directive of more responsible citizenship.

CLARENCE KILLMER

Wilbur Wright Junior High School
Cleveland, Ohio

THE SOVIET UNION. By Emil Lengyel. New York:
Oxford Book Company, 1951. 76 p.

Attempting to fit the massive form of the Soviet Union into a space of seventy-six small pages is like trying to solve the problem of Valentin Katayev's two Sovietized couples who were forced to squeeze into a tiny room that was more suitable for Tom Thumb and his thimble. In each case, “squaring the circle” in a space where there is hardly room enough to draw a straight line presents many formidable difficulties. Certainly, it must be admitted that while we moderns have

mastered the skill of preparing digests of digests of digests, the job of squeezing the Soviet Union into a seventy-six page container is a far more ambitious de-juicing project than most of those previously undertaken.

Emil Lengyel, associate professor of education at New York university and author of “Siberia” and “Dakar,” nevertheless tries to accomplish this task in his booklet *The Soviet Union*, one in a series of short Oxford social studies publications designed to survey contemporary problems in a form suitable for school use. Mr. Lengyel limits the scope of his project to “a description of the land and its people, their historical background, some of their folkways, their manner of making a living, and their political system” (preface).

The first three of the seven chapters are devoted primarily to a study of the major land areas of the Soviet Union, the types of union republics and subdivisions, and the divergent groupings of nationalities. Quite accurate in his presentation of data, the author is still handicapped by lack of space and too often the reader is bounced along at a rubber-ball rate that does not assist him to evaluate or retain key points.

Chapters four and five should prove to be of more interest to the student, for in them Mr. Lengyel describes Russian “national ways and attitudes” and their historic roots. There is insufficient justification, however, for the author's stereotyping of the Russian people; and it is doubtful that “mysticism” and “fatalism” can be convincingly demonstrated to be “national” traits.

The final two chapters, discussing the economic and political organization of the Soviet Union, are the best in the pamphlet, particularly for their clarity of presentation. They are misleading only when Mr. Lengyel compares Soviet political institutions with our own. The Supreme Soviet does not, in fact, correspond to the American Congress (compared on pp. 66-7), nor is the Council of Ministers “equivalent to the Cabinet in the British or French government” (p. 68).

In brief, then, *THE SOVIET UNION* contains sections that will be of considerable value to students in secondary school and at the lower collegiate levels, but the pamphlet as a whole is bulging uncomfortably at the seams, with no place in which to explode.

DANIEL ROSELLE

New York State Teachers College at Fredonia

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SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINES, Dept. SE, 351 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N.Y.

THE UNITED NATIONS AND POWER POLITICS. By John MacLaurin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. 468 p. \$5.00.

This is by far the best book on the U.N. which this reviewer has read, and his reading has been fairly extensive in this field. It is a vivid and searching analysis of the United Nations, its program, its progress, its problems, and its potentialities.

It is written by an educator with world-wide experience. He has worked as a member of the U.N. secretariat and therefore knows it from the inside as well as the outside. He writes with wide knowledge and deep conviction.

His major thesis is the struggle between the various forces striving to strengthen the U.N. and the various forces using it to play power politics. Obviously he is disappointed in the progress to date, but he is not disillusioned.

Dr. MacLaurin (which is a pen name) uses strong words to describe some of the world's major problems and to discuss the ways they are being handled at the present moment. For example, he asserts that "Our governments have not yet tried an honest U.N. policy." Some readers

will be irked by his point of view; some will be angered by the language he uses. But such persons ought to be stimulated to some deep thinking as a result of this volume. And if they disagree with the author, they will have to be experts to match the proof which he assembles to support his conclusions.

The author devotes a great deal of attention to the Economic and Social Council, the specialized agencies, and the Trusteeship Council, viewing them as the parts of the U.N. making a frontal attack on the basic problems of the world—poverty, imperialism, disease, ignorance, and exploitation. In the chapters dealing with these parts of the U.N., as in other parts of the book, he often traces a single issue from inception to conclusion. This technique is one of the several commendable features of a stimulating and readable volume.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Brooklyn College
Mount Hermon School

THE ADMINISTRATION OF AMERICAN FOREIGN AFFAIRS. By James L. McCamy. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950. 364 p. \$3.00 text.

There has long been a formidable misunderstanding and lack of knowledge about the machinery which operates American foreign policy. Most Americans, teachers and laymen alike, tend to regard the Department of State as the sole depository of authority in the conduct of foreign relations. Professor McCamy has made an excellent survey of the complex structure and interrelationships involved in the administration of foreign policy and has studiously avoided the common oversimplification. The result is an extremely worthwhile critical analysis of the role of the innumerable policy-makers and of the processes by which foreign policy is made.

Dr. McCamy examines many of the charges made against the Department of State. Most of them, he feels, are unjustified. On the other hand, he does emphasize the crucial need for a reorganization of our administrative conduct if the United States is to be adequately equipped to carry out its avowed program for national security and global peace. The author's long experience as a governmental administrator, political scientist and teacher, leads him to suggest fundamental reforms involving a centralization of responsibility in the handling of foreign relations at the super-cabinet rank.

There can be little question of the value of this thoroughgoing presentation to the social science teacher or to the student of foreign relations or public administration. It could serve admirably as a text on the college post-graduate level for courses in foreign affairs and diplomatic practices. The necessary specialization makes it less possible for utilization for the college or secondary school student. Nonetheless, it is highly recommended as required reading for those teaching American history or government, public administration or international affairs.

MARTIN B. DWORKIS

New York University
New York, N.Y.

ECONOMICS. By Edward L. Korey and Edmond J. Runge. New York: Benjamin O. Warren Co., Inc., 1951. Rev. ed. 708 p. \$3.52.

Secondary level economic texts, like old rocking chairs, have to be lived with to be appreciated. So many texts which work well in one situation often prove useless in others. The revised edition of Korey and Runge *Economics* is the result of

selection and revision in terms of the experience of the authors in their teaching. It has been lived with and has improved in the process.

Within the covers of this text, one finds a somewhat conventional treatment of current economic problems with every effort made to bring statistics, problems, diagrams, and pictures up to date. Throughout each of the thirteen units is presented a well-integrated and simplified historical survey to relate the economic problem to previous study of history.

Of great value to the instructor is a series of "true statements" which summarizes the material covered in each chapter. By using these statements to lead classroom discussions, the instructor and the students can easily ascertain the level of comprehension and emphasize the matters of most importance.

Criticism of this text for honor level work would stem from the sketchy presentation of the value of money and the banking system. Much of this material is over-simplified to the point of leading to invalid conclusions on the basis of the information given. Very little emphasis is placed upon the work of Lord Keynes and others, a shortcoming that deprives the capable student of a thorough understanding of modern economic theory of money, value, prices, and banking, and of their relationship to the business cycle.

The text concludes with a well-formed bibliography for outside reading, with the stress upon enrichment rather than upon verification of facts. Since this bibliography is arranged in topical sequence corresponding to the units of the text, it should prove highly effective in making all students "stretch."

FREDERICK E. BAUER, JR.

Mount Hermon School
Gill, Massachusetts

Publications Received

Bard, Harry, and Manatee, Harold S. *Active Citizenship*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1951. v + 506 p. \$3.44.

Kerrison, Irvine L. H. *Workers' Education at the University Level*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1951. xiii + 177 p. \$3.00.

Riegel, Robert E., and Haugh, Helen. *United States of America*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951. Rev. ed. viii + 855 p. \$3.80.

Runes, Dagobert D. *Spinoza Dictionary*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. xiv + 309 p. \$5.00.

Smith, Marie Elizabeth. *Bob's Story of the Retail Food Market*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951. 47 p.

Smith, Marie Elizabeth. *Mother's Story of Dairying*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951. 47 p.

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Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers

by Edwin R. Carr

A carefully selected and annotated list of readings and references for social studies teachers. About 500 books and 50 magazines are annotated. The lists are grouped, covering each discipline in the social sciences and the field of social studies education. A valuable guide for teachers and librarians. Every social studies teacher should have a copy in his professional library for ready reference. Published July 1951. Price \$1.25

Social Studies for Young Adolescents

Programs for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine

Julian C. Aldrich, *editor*

This is number six in the Curriculum Series of the National Council for the Social Studies. Identifies major problems and trends in the junior high school grades; reports description of practices from a number of school systems; and offers a variety of suggestions, including different methods of approach, for the curriculum of grades seven, eight, and nine. A helpful publication for teachers and supervisors that will aid them in working with the difficult problems of these grade levels. Published October 1951. Price \$1.50

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LIVING IN OUR AMERICA, A RECORD OF OUR COUNTRY. By I. James Quillen and Edward Krug. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1951. 752p. \$3.32.

"We have the goals of liberty, equality, justice, and the pursuit of happiness. . . Our ideas of the best ways to reach these goals and of the best methods to keep these rights have changed and are changing" (page 703). Such a statement of purpose well fits this attractive, double-columned, 752-page American history text for upper elementary grades.

There is a colorful thirty-two page introduction. Full color global perspective maps, folklore maps, American life cartoons, and selected pictorials are eyecatching. "A good history must tell . . . about the land which makes up a country and a great deal about the people who have lived on that land" (page 7). Interspersed in the text are 64 additional maps, innumerable illustrations, pictographs and small cartoons.

The twenty-two chapters are conveniently divided into eight chronologically progressive units. Four units antedate and include the "War Between the States," and four units postdate this crisis. This approximates a 50 percent content division. There are two to four chapters in each unit. Unit titles are: "The Beginnings," "The Fight for Freedom," "The New Nation," "Confirming the Union," "Inventions Help Unite the Nation," "Promoting the General Welfare," "Home Problems and World Responsibilities," and "Facing the Future."

Innumerable documentary excerpts are given. Their length varies from several paragraphs to several columns. They consist of contemporary documents, dialogues, lyrics, and poems. The index italicizes these excerpts. This is a most welcome pattern for American history appreciation at the upper elementary level. The student is stimulated to "compare further," "look longer," and "look deeper," in the many well catalogued books listed with thumbnail content sentences at the end of each chapter. He is stimulated to activate himself as an individual or as a member of a group in the suggested aids to learning by writing, by drawing or making things, by dramatics and speaking, and by preparing charts, time lines, contemporary follow-up clippings, etc. At the end of each chapter there is listed a generous sampling of audio-visual aids in films and recordings.

The problem-approach procedure is generously repeated with the aim to habituate the scientific approach to all problem solving. The text has well balanced argumentative approaches to the

NEGRO BOOKS

Eppse, Merl R.: "A Guide to the Study of the Negro in American History." An integrated outline of valuable material on the Negro from Africa to the present. Over six hundred carefully selected references properly placed at each end of twelve topics. Authoritative guide for High School, College and inter-racial group study.

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Buck. (8Vo.) 641 pp. 1949 \$3.50

Eppse, Merl R. & Foster, A. P.: "An Elementary American History with Contributions of the Negro Race" Same as above, but more simplified. For use in elementary schools.

Buck. (8Vo.) 410 pp. 1949 \$2.50

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various past or contemporary historical problems. "We see that the American people have always had problems. Some of them have been solved for us, some of them have been left for us to solve, and perhaps we will have to pass on some of the problems for future citizens to work on" (page 709).

In considering the numerous wars of the United States, a deliberate effort appears to be made to develop not so much the events, but the causes, the results, and the kind of peace. Chapter 21 is devoted to "Our American Neighbors." World War II is well reviewed in Chapter 20. There appears to be an increased emphasis on United States foreign relations, yet the accomplishments of the attempts toward organized world government are skimmed over. A more careful topical weighting, including more on "Our American Neighbors" and more on the development of world government integration would be welcome.

In defense of the text, however, its many sterling qualities far out-weigh such topical shortness. The type is large and clear. Language and style are considerate of the reader age-level. Sample passages checked by the Lorge formula showed the readability level between the sixth- and



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introductions to further study

"—shows what China is like, how it developed
... what the people do, and how they do it."

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eighth-grade level. The book is well bound, the paper is of good reflective quality, and it is quite durable. Several pupils selected to give reviews thoroughly enjoyed the contents. They liked its readability, attractiveness, and the special aids to learning. The text as a whole is conducive to the general purpose directive of more responsible citizenship.

CLARENCE KILLMER

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THE SOVIET UNION. By Emil Lengyel. New York:
Oxford Book Company, 1951. 76 p.

Attempting to fit the massive form of the Soviet Union into a space of seventy-six small pages is like trying to solve the problem of Valentin Katayev's two Sovietized couples who were forced to squeeze into a tiny room that was more suitable for Tom Thumb and his thimble. In each case, "squaring the circle" in a space where there is hardly room enough to draw a straight line presents many formidable difficulties. Certainly, it must be admitted that while we moderns have

mastered the skill of preparing digests of digests of digests, the job of squeezing the Soviet Union into a seventy-six page container is a far more ambitious de-juicing project than most of those previously undertaken.

Emil Lengyel, associate professor of education at New York university and author of "Siberia" and "Dakar," nevertheless tries to accomplish this task in his booklet *The Soviet Union*, one in a series of short Oxford social studies publications designed to survey contemporary problems in a form suitable for school use. Mr. Lengyel limits the scope of his project to "a description of the land and its people, their historical background, some of their folkways, their manner of making a living, and their political system" (preface).

The first three of the seven chapters are devoted primarily to a study of the major land areas of the Soviet Union, the types of union republics and subdivisions, and the divergent groupings of nationalities. Quite accurate in his presentation of data, the author is still handicapped by lack of space and too often the reader is bounced along at a rubber-ball rate that does not assist him to evaluate or retain key points.

Chapters four and five should prove to be of more interest to the student, for in them Mr. Lengyel describes Russian "national ways and attitudes" and their historic roots. There is insufficient justification, however, for the author's stereotyping of the Russian people; and it is doubtful that "mysticism" and "fatalism" can be convincingly demonstrated to be "national" traits.

The final two chapters, discussing the economic and political organization of the Soviet Union, are the best in the pamphlet, particularly for their clarity of presentation. They are misleading only when Mr. Lengyel compares Soviet political institutions with our own. The Supreme Soviet does not, in fact, correspond to the American Congress (compared on pp. 66-7), nor is the Council of Ministers "equivalent to the Cabinet in the British or French government" (p. 68).

In brief, then, *THE SOVIET UNION* contains sections that will be of considerable value to students in secondary school and at the lower collegiate levels, but the pamphlet as a whole is bulging uncomfortably at the seams, with no place in which to explode.

DANIEL ROSELLE

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